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ART. I. *Voyages from Montreal, on the River St. Laurence, through the Continent of North America, to the Frozen and Pacific Oceans;* in the Years 1789 and 1793. With a preliminary Account of the Rise, Progress, and present State of the Fur Trade of that Country. Illustrated with Maps. By Alexander Mackenzie, Esq.* 4to. pp. 544. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1801.

FEW ages have been more fruitful than the present in extraordinary atchievements; and among those which will be regarded with interest by posterity, will be numbered the enterprizes of the hardy and adventurous travellers who, undaunted by the known danger of their attempts, have traversed regions which had been deemed impenetrable to the most ardent efforts of the civilized world. The publication, to which our attention is now called, affords another instance of this bold and persevering spirit. Mr. Mackenzie has twice, in different directions, crossed the great continent of North America, from shore to shore: the first time, in 1789, to the Frozen sea; the second, in 1793, to the Western coast; and these two voyages are related in the volume before us.

In his preface, the author thus speaks of himself and his work:

'I was led, at an early period of life, by commercial views, to the country North-West of Lake Superior, in North America; and being endowed by Nature with an inquisitive mind and enterprizing spirit; possessing also a constitution and frame of body equal to the most arduous undertakings; and being familiar with toilsome exertions in the prosecution of mercantile pursuits; I not only contemplated the practicability of penetrating across the continent of America, but was confident in the qualifications, as I was animated by the desire, to undertake the perilous enterprize.'—

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* Since the publication of this volume Mr. Mackenzie has received the honour of knighthood, in consideration of his labours: but we shall speak of him, in this article, only by that title which appears in the work.

'The first voyage has settled the dubious point of a practicable North-West passage; and I trust, that it has set that long-agitated question at rest, and extinguished the disputes respecting it for ever. An enlarged discussion of that subject will be found to occupy the concluding pages of this volume.

'In this voyage, I was not only without the necessary books and instruments, but also felt myself deficient in the sciences of astronomy and navigation: I did not hesitate, therefore, to undertake a winter's voyage to England, in order to procure the one and acquire the other. These objects being accomplished, I returned, to determine the practicability of a commercial communication through the continent of North America, between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.'

These preparatory steps were favourable indications of a spirit of perseverance adequate to such an attempt, and the event has been fully answerable to the prognostics.—To account for the lapse of time between the execution of his design and the appearance of his narrative, the author states that this circumstance is owing to the active and busy mode of life in which he has been engaged since the completion of the voyages.

In order to enable the reader to comprehend the object and nature of these undertakings, the author has prefixed a general History of the Fur Trade, from Canada to the North-West; of which we shall give a short sketch.

When European settlements were first formed in Canada, the country was so populous, that, in the vicinity of the establishments, the animals whose skins were most valued soon became scarce. To procure a supply, the Indians were encouraged to penetrate into other parts of the country, and were generally accompanied by some of the European settlers, who found means to induce the remote tribes to bring skins to their settlements.

'It is not necessary for me, (says Mr. M.,) to examine the cause, but experience proves that it requires much less time for a civilized people to deviate into the manners and customs of savage life, than for savages to rise into a state of civilization. Such was the event with those who thus accompanied the natives on their hunting and trading excursions; for they became so attached to the Indian mode of life, that they lost all relish for their former habits and native homes. Hence they derived the title of *Coureurs des Bois*, became a kind of pedlars, and were extremely useful to the merchants engaged in the fur trade; who gave them the necessary credit to proceed on their commercial undertakings. Three or four of these people would join their stock, put their property into a birch-bark canoe, which they worked themselves, and either accompanied the natives in their excursions, or went at once to the country where they knew they were to hunt. At length, these voyages extended to twelve or fifteen months,

months, when they returned with rich cargoes of furs, and followed by great numbers of the natives. During the short time requisite to settle their accounts with the merchants, and procure fresh credit, they generally contrived to squander away all their gains, when they returned to renew their favourite mode of life; their views being answered, and their labour sufficiently rewarded, by indulging themselves in extravagance and dissipation during the short space of one month in twelve or fifteen.

'This indifference about amassing property, and the pleasure of living free from all restraint, soon brought on a licentiousness of manners which could not long escape the vigilant observation of the missionaries, who had much reason to complain of their being a disgrace to the Christian religion; by not only swerving from its duties themselves, but by thus bringing it into disrepute with those of the natives who had become converts to it; and, consequently, obstructing the great object to which those pious men had devoted their lives. They, therefore, exerted their influeuce to procure the suppression of these people, and accordingly, no one was allowed to go up the country to traffic with the Indians, without a licence from the government.'

The grant of these licences was soon considered as a favour, and they were made transferable, and of course saleable. Those who bought were allowed to appoint their own agents, and the agents thus employed were generally the *coureurs des bois*, whose conduct had given such cause of complaint; so that the remedy proved in fact worse than the disease. At length, military posts were established at convenient places, and several respectable men prosecuted the trade on their own accounts in person; which mode was attended with the twofold benefit of securing the respect of the natives, and the obedience of the people employed in the laborious parts of the business.

'As for the missionaries, (says the author,) if sufferings and hardships in the prosecution of the great work which they had undertaken deserved applause and admiration, they had an undoubted claim to be admired and applauded: they spared no labour and avoided no danger in the execution of their important office; and it is to be seriously lamented, that their pious endeavours did not meet with the success which they deserved: for there is hardly a trace to be found, beyond the cultivated parts, of their meritorious functions.

'The cause of this failure must be attributed to a want of due consideration in the mode employed by the missionaries to propagate the religion of which they were the zealous ministers. They habituated themselves to the savage life, and naturalised themselves to the savage manners; and, by thus becoming dependent, as it were, on the natives, they acquired their contempt rather than their veneration.'

Mr. M. justly thinks that the missionaries 'should have begun their work by teaching some of those useful arts which are the inlets of knowledge, and lead the mind by degrees to objects of higher comprehension. Agriculture, so formed to fix and combine society, and so preparatory to objects of superior consideration, should have been the first thing introduced among a savage people.' It is but justice to observe that the late missionaries from this country to other parts of the world, who so zealously devoted their lives and their labours to the improvement of the less cultivated of their fellow-creatures, were men properly qualified to teach those *useful arts* which most tend *to fit and combine society;* and from this single circumstance, whatever has been the event, it was reasonable to expect benefit from their endeavours.

Under the French government, the Fur Trade from Canada was extended as far West as the *Saskatchiwine* river, in 53° N. latitude, and 102° West longitude from Greenwich. Mr. Mackenzie mentions that two of the traders at that time attempted to penetrate to the Pacific Ocean, but he could never learn the extent of their journey.—After the conquest of Canada by the English, the trade for furs in that country was for some time suspended; the new possessors having neither knowlege of the Indian language, nor confidence in the natives, who had been accustomed to entertain hostile dispositions towards the English. By degrees, however, the trade revived, and, being encouraged by a few successful adventures, 'was pursued with such avidity and irregularity, that in a few years it became the reverse of what it ought to have been. An animated competition prevailed, and the contending parties carried the trade beyond the French limits, though with no benefit to themselves or neighbours, the Hudson's-Bay Company; who in the year 1774, and not till then, thought proper to move from home to the East bank of Sturgeon Lake, in latitude 53° 56′ North, and longitude 102° 15′ West; and became more jealous of their fellow subjects, and, perhaps, with more cause, than they had been of those of France. From this period to the present time, they have been following the Canadians to their different establishments; while, on the contrary, there is not a solitary instance that the Canadians have followed them.'

This competition gave a fatal blow to the trade from Canada: but, in 1775, Mr. Joseph Frobisher, one of the gentlemen engaged in this commerce, being more enterprizing than his predecessors, went as far as to 55° 25′ N. and to 103° West longitude, where he met the Indians from that quarter on their way to Fort Churchill, and with some difficulty pre-

vailed on them to trade with him. He went again in the following year, and wss equally successful;—and his brother afterward penetrated nearly five degrees more to the West.

No long period elapsed before the improper conduct of some of the people from Canada rendered it dangerous for them to remain among the natives. In 1780, at the Eagle hills near the Saskatchiwine river, says Mr. Mackenzie, 'a large band of the Indians being engaged in drinking about their houses, one of the traders, to *ease himself** of the troublesome importunities of a native, *gave* him a dose of laudanum in a glass of grog, which effectually prevented him from *giving* farther trouble to any one, by *setting* him asleep for ever. This accident produced a fray, in which one of the traders and several of the men were killed; while the rest had no other means to save themselves but by a precipitate flight, abandoning a considerable quantity of goods, and near half the furs which they had collected in the winter.' Similar circumstances, in which, however, the white men were not the aggressors, happened about the same time at other places.

'It *appeared*, that the natives had formed a resolution to extirpate the traders; and, without entering into any further reasonings on the subject, it *appears* to be incontrovertible, that the irregularity pursued in carrying on the trade has brought it into its present forlorn situation; and nothing but the greatest calamity that could have befallen the natives, saved the traders from destruction: this was the small-pox, which spred its destructive and desolating power, as the fire consumes the dry grass of the field. The fatal infection spread around with a baneful rapidity which no flight could escape, and with a fatal effect that nothing could resist. It destroyed with its pestilential breath whole families and tribes.'—

It was never ascertained by what means this malignant disorder was introduced: but such a state of the country could not be favourable for the traders. Those, however, who ventured in 1782-3, 'found the inhabitants in some sort of tranquillity, and more numerous than they had reason to expect.'

In the winter of 1783-4, the merchants of Canada, who were engaged in this trade, formed a junction of interests under the name of the North-West Company: but some who were dissatisfied with the shares allotted to them, and others who considered themselves as neglected, entered into a copartnership separate from that company; and in this association Mr. M. engaged as a partner, and as one of the active

* This expression is one among the numerous marks of inelegance and incorrectness which characterize the author's style: but he modestly disclaims all pretensions to pre-eminence 'in the character of an author.'

managers. After a severe struggle with their competitors, however, they adopted the wise resolution of agreeing to an union of interests: which new engagement was concluded in July 1787.—The author has entered into a detail of the management of the North West Company; and our readers may form some judgement of the extent of the trade, from the following account of the furs and peltries which were the produce of the year 1798:

' 106,000	Beaver skins,	6000	Lynx skins,
2100	Bear skins,	600	Wolverine skins,
1500	Fox skins,	1650	Fisher skins,
4000	Kitt Fox skins,	100	Racoon skins,
4600	Otter skins.	3800	Wolf skins,
17,000	Musquash skins,	700	Elk skins,
32,000	Marten skins,	750	Deer skins,
1800	Mink skins,	1200	Deer skins, dressed,

500 Buffalo robes, and a quantity of castorum.'

'The number of men employed in the concern is 50 clerks; 71 interpreters and clerks; 1120 canoe men; and 35 guides.'

Mr. M. has given, in this part of his work, an Itinerary or description of the route from *Montreal* to *Fort Chepewyan* on the South side of the lake of the hills; an establishment which was formed in 1788, in latitude 58° 38′ N. and longitude 110° 26′ West. The labour performed by some of the carriers appears extraordinary:

'When they are arrived at the Grande Portage, which is near nine miles over, each of them has to carry eight packages of such goods and provisions as are necessary for the interior country. This is a labour which cattle cannot conveniently perform in summer, as both horses and oxen were tried by the company without success. They are only useful for light bulky articles; or for transporting upon sledges, during the winter, whatever goods may remain there, especially provision, of which it is usual to have a year's stock on hand.

'Having finished this toilsome part of their duty, if more goods are necessary to be transported, they are allowed a Spanish dollar for each package: and so inured are they to this kind of labour, that I have known some of them set off with two packages of ninety pounds each, and return with two others of the same weight, in the course of six hours, being a distance of eighteen miles over hills and mountains.'

Some of the Indian tribes are described in this introductory history of the fur trade. The Knisteneaux Indians are spred over a great portion of the continent of North America; and Mr. M. remarks that their women are the most comely of any that he has seen among the native Americans. 'Their figure is generally well proportioned, and the regularity of their features

features would be acknowledged by the more civilized people of Europe.'—'These people are naturally mild and affable, as well as just in their dealings, not only among themselves but with strangers. They are also generous and hospitable.—To their children they are indulgent to a fault.'—After a portrait with so many excellent features, it is with pain that we contemplate others which are very bad, and that we also learn the miserable state of the females of this nation. 'They are subject to every kind of domestic drudgery; they dress the leather, make the clothes and shoes, weave the nets, collect wood, erect the tents, fetch water, and perform every culinary service; so that when the duties of maternal care are added, it will appear that the life of these women is an uninterrupted succession of toil and pain. This, indeed, is the sense they entertain of their own situation; and, under the influence of that sentiment, they are sometimes known to destroy their female children, to save them from the miseries which they themselves have suffered. They also have a ready way, by the use of certain simples, of procuring abortions, which they sometimes practise, from their hatred of the father, or to save themselves the trouble which children occasion.'

We shall give one short *trait* of the Chepewyan Indians:

'There are no people more attentive to the comforts of their dress, or less anxious respecting its exterior appearance. In the winter it is composed of the skins of deer, and their fawns, and dressed as fine as any chamois leather, in the hair. In the summer their apparel is the same, except that it is prepared without the hair. Their shoes and leggins are sewed together, the latter reaching upwards to the middle, and being supported by a belt, under which a small piece of leather is drawn to cover the private parts, the ends of which fall down both before and behind. In the shoes they put the hair of the moose or rein-deer, with additional pieces of leather as socks. The shirt or coat, when girted round the waist, reaches to the middle of the thigh, and the mittens are sewed to the sleeves, or are suspended by strings from the shoulders. A ruff or tippet surrounds the neck, and the skin of the head of the deer forms a curious kind of cap. A robe, made of several deer or fawn skins sewed together, covers the whole. This dress is worn single or double, but always, in the winter, with the hair within and without. Thus arrayed, a Chepewyan will lay himself down on the ice in the middle of a lake, and repose in comfort; though he will sometimes find a difficulty in the morning to disencumber himself from the snow drifted on him during the night. If in his passage he should be in want of provision, he cuts an hole in the ice, when he seldom fails of taking some trout or pike, whose eyes he instantly scoops out, and eats as a great delicacy; but if they should not be sufficient to satisfy his appetite, he will, in this necessity, make his meal of the fish in its raw state; but, those whom I saw, preferred to dress their victuals when circumstances admitted the

necessary preparation. When they are in that part of their country which does not produce a sufficient quantity of wood for fuel, they are reduced to the same exigency, though they generally dry their meat in the sun.'

To these descriptions, the author has added vocabularies of the languages.

After this introduction, which is replete with entertainment and information, Mr. M. enters on the relation of his voyage to the North.—On Wednesday, June 3, 1789, at nine in the morning, he departed from Fort Chepewyan, on the south side of the lake of the hills, in a canoe made of birch bark.

'The crew consisted of four Canadians, two of whom were attended by their wives, and a German; we were accompanied also by an Indian, who had acquired the title of English Chief, and his two wives, in a small canoe, with two young Indians; his followers in another small canoe. These men were engaged to serve us in the twofold capacity of interpreters and hunters. This Indian was one of the followers of the chief who conducted Mr. Hearne to the copper-mine river, and has since been a principal leader of his countrymen who were in the habit of carrying furs to Churchill Factory, Hudson's Bay, and till of late very much attached to the interest of that company. These circumstances procured him the appellation of the English Chief.'

The route pursued was, first, to the Western part of the lake of the hills; and thence to the North, by a river which discharges itself into a lake called the Great Slave Lake. After having made a circuit round the greater portion of the northern shore of the Slave Lake, on the 29th of June, at its western part, they entered a river to which Mr. Mackenzie has given his own name, being then in a tract wholly new to Europeans; and they followed the course of this stream, of which the general direction was to the N.W., till it brought them to the Frozen Sea. This short outline gives a very inadequate idea of the track: but, indeed, it cannot be well comprehended without consulting the map with which the narrative is accompanied.—An Indian of a tribe called the Red-knife Indians (so named from their copper knives) undertook to be their guide.

Their progress was made by day; for at night they always landed and set up their tents; embarking again in the morning. The Indians of their party provided food by hunting, shooting, or fishing; which, however, was not their sole reliance, since they had taken a store of provisions in the canoe.—They frequently saw places at which the Indians had resided, and sometimes they met with Indians: but the number of them bore a very smal proportion to the extent of country through which the voyagers passed.

passed. Towards the sea they descended with the stream. The natives, from whom they endeavoured to obtain information, gave exaggerated accounts of rapids and falls in their way: but they were all passed without much danger or difficulty.

The life of the unsettled North Americans must necessarily be a state of habitual and unceasing apprehension; and accordingly Mr. M. and his party had passed nearly a week in Mackenzie's river, when they first met some of the natives.

'We saw smoke on the north shore, and, as we drew nearer, we discovered the natives running about in great apparent confusion; some were making to the woods, and others hurrying to their canoes. Our hunters landed before us, and addressed the few that had not escaped, in the Chipewyan language, which, so great was their confusion and terror, they did not appear to understand. But when they perceived that it was impossible to avoid us, as we were all landed, they made us signs to keep at a distance, with which we complied, and not only unloaded our canoe, but pitched our tents, before we made any attempt to approach them. During this interval, the English chief and his young men were employed in reconciling them to our arrival; and when they had recovered from their alarm of hostile intention, it appeared that some of them perfectly comprehended the language of our Indians; so that they were at length persuaded, though not without evident signs of reluctance and apprehension, to come to us. Their reception, however, soon dissipated their fears, and they hastened to call their fugitive companions from their hiding places.

'There were five families, consisting of twenty-five or thirty persons, and of two different tribes, the Slave and Dog-rib Indians. We made them smoke, though it was evident they did not know the use of tobacco; we likewise supplied them with grog; but I am disposed to think, that they accepted our civilities rather from fear than inclination. We acquired a more effectual influence over them by the distribution of knives, beads, awls, rings, gartering, fire-steels, flints, and hatchets; so that they became more familiar even than we expected, for we could not keep them out of our tents: though I did not observe that they attempted to purloin any thing.'

These people told the travellers that there were very few animals in the country beyond them, and that, if they proceeded, they must perish with hunger: yet one of the Indians was induced to accompany them by the offer of a small kettle, an axe, a knife, and some other articles. 'As we were ready to embark, (says the author,) our new recruit was desired to prepare for his departure, which he would have declined: but, as none of his friends would take his place, we may be said, after the delay of an hour, to have compelled him to embark. Previous to his departure, he cut off a lock of his hair, and, having divided it into three parts, he fastened one of them

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to the hair on the upper part of his wife's head, blowing on it three times with the utmost violence, and uttering certain words. The other two he fastened, with the same formalities, on the heads of his two children.'

The Indians of this village are described as meagre, ugly, and ill made; particularly about the legs, 'which were covered with scabs, 'occasioned probably by their habitually roasting them before the fire;' and many of them were in a bad state of health. 'They were of moderate stature, and, as far as could be discovered through the coat of dirt and grease that covers them, of a fairer complexion than the generality of Indians who are the natives of warmer climates.'—'Their lodges are of a very simple structure: a few poles supported by a fork, and forming a semicircle at the bottom, with some branches or a piece of bark as a covering, constitutes the whole of their native architecture. They build two of these huts facing each other, and make the fire between them. The furniture harmonizes with the buildings: they have a few dishes of wood, bark, or horn; the vessels in which they cook their victuals, are in the shape of a gourd, narrow at the top and wide at the bottom, and of watape *, fabricated in such a manner as to hold water, which is made to boil by putting a succession of red-hot stones into it. These vessels contain from two to six gallons.'

The following sentence will shew the expedition with which the voyagers were carried towards the sea: 'Monday, July 6th, at three o'clock, in a raw and cloudy morning, we embarked, and steered West-south-west 4 miles, West 4 miles, West-north-west 5 miles, West 8 miles, West by South 16 miles, West 27 miles, South-West 9 miles, then West 6 miles, and encamped at half-past seven.' The author has kept a regular and minute reckoning of the route, and in the history of each day has given an account of the progress: but it would perhaps have been more pleasant to the reader, and the route would have been more readily comprehended, if the courses and distances had been separated from the narrative, and formed into a table.

Indians were seen farther to the North, of more creditable appearance than those whom we have just described; 'healthy, full of flesh, and clean in their persons.'—The voyagers now found their guide so troublesome in requiring his discharge, that they were glad to exchange him for another; who also

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'* Watape is the name given to the divided roots of the spruce-fir, which the natives weave into a degree of compactness that renders it capable of containing a fluid. The different parts of the bark canoes are also sewed together with this kind of filament.'

soon

soon took an opportunity of escaping: but they had the good fortune shortly afterward of procuring a third, more willing than either of the former. To the north of 67°½ of north latitude, however, the river beginning to widen, and to run through different channels formed by large islands, they were beyond his knowlege, and only determined on keeping the middle channel.

July 12th. the author took an observation in 69° 01′ N., and no land was seen before them except islands. They made towards the western point of a high island to the North, at which they arrived at 5 o'clock. Ice appeared to interrupt their farther progress; no land was seen to the north beyond the island on which they then were; and this was the Northern boundary of their voyage. 'As soon as the tents were pitched,' says Mr. M., 'I proceeded with the English chief to the highest part of the island.—As far as the eye could reach to the south westward, we could dimly perceive a chain of mountains, stretching farther to the north than the edge of the ice, at the distance of upwards of twenty leagues. To the eastward we saw many islands; and in our progress we met with a considerable number of white partridges, now become brown. There were also flocks of very beautiful plovers, and I found the nest of one of them with four eggs. White owls, likewise, were among the inhabitants of the place: but the dead, as well as the living, demanded our attention, for we came to the grave of one of the natives, by which lay a bow, a paddle, and a spear,'

The whole party were unwilling that, having gone so far, they should be obliged to return without ascertaining whether or not they had reached the sea; and, in hopes that the ice would break up and disperse, they prolonged their stay on the island. In this station, the latitude was observed 69° 14′ N. The longitude, by reckoning, was 134° W. from Greenwich. [In the narrative it is said 135° W. which must be an error of the press; the longitude in the chart being 134° W.] The variation of the compass was 36 degrees easterly.—'Fish were caught, among which were some about the size of a herring, which none of us had ever seen before, except the English Chief, who recognized it as being of a kind that abounds in Hudson's Bay.'——'Tuesday 14th. Having sat up till three in the morning, I slept longer than usual; but, about eight, one of my men saw a great many animals in the water, which he at first supposed to be pieces of ice. About nine, however, I was awakened to resolve the doubts which had taken place respecting this extraordinary appearance. I immediately perceived that they were whales; and, having ordered the canoe to be prepared, we embarked in pursuit of them. It was, indeed,

deed, a very wild and unreflecting enterprize, and it was a very fortunate circumstance that we failed in our attempt to overtake them, as a stroke from the tail of one of these enormous fish would have dashed the canoe to pieces.'—The sight of the whales sufficiently demonstrated the neighbourhood of the sea: but we do not find any mention of experiments being made to determine whether the water, on which they navigated, was in any degree salt or brackish. The spot whence the whales were seen was named, by the author, Whale Island, and is nearly in the same latitude (but 20 degrees more to the west) as the part of the north coast whence Mr. Hearne, in 1771, saw the sea.—The return to the south by the same river (Mackenzie's river) was a business of much more labour and fatigue than the voyage to the sea, since they had to mount against a strong stream, which required constant exertion of paddling, or of tracking with a line on shore. In one part of the river, where the breadth from shore to shore did not exceed 300 yards, the depth of water was 50 fathoms.

Most of the Indians seen by Mr. M. to the northward were at variance with the Esquimaux, whom they represented as being cruel and treacherous: but from these Esquimaux the author learned that, 'eight or ten winters ago, they had seen large canoes to the westward, full of white men,' from whom they had obtained iron in exchange for leather.' From other information, imperfectly understood, he had reason for conjecturing that the body of water or sea, into which Mackenzie's river discharges itself at Whale Island, communicates with Norton Sound.

It will easily be credited that hard travelling in a cold climate is an excellent stimulant to the appetite; and the following instance is here related: 'We had consumed two rein deer, four swans, forty-five geese, and a considerable quantity of fish, in six days: but it is to be considered we were ten men and four women. I have always observed that the North men possessed very hearty appetites, but they were much exceeded by those with me, since we entered this river. I should really have thought it absolute gluttony in my people, if my own appetite had not increased in a similar proportion.'

In the return, a serious dispute took place between the author and the Indians of his party; and, in order to prevent it from growing to a quarrel, he says, 'I sent for the English Chief to sup with me; and a dram or two dispelled all his heartburning and discontent. He informed me that it was a custom with the Chepewyan chiefs to go to war after they had shed tears, to wipe away the disgrace attached to such a feminine weakness.'

On Saturday, September 12th, at three in the afternoon, the voyagers arrived in safety at Chepewyan Fort, whence they had commenced their progress; and 'here concluded this voyage, which had occupied the considerable space of one hundred and two days.'

Here, also, after an account of so much hazard and labour, it may not be unacceptable to give our readers and ourselves a little rest, before we enter on Mr. Mackenzie's second voyage.

[*To be continued.*]

Capt. B....y.

ART. II. *Account of the Life and Writings of William Robertson, D.D. F.R.S.E.* late Principal of the University of Edinburgh, and Historiographer to His Majesty for Scotland. 4to. 9s.; and 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1801.

A NATURAL and laudable curiosity is felt with regard to the incidents of a life which has been spent in enlarging the knowlege and promoting the welfare of mankind. When a *writer* has rendered himself deservedly popular by his productions, we wish to be informed of some particulars relative to the *man*; we are desirous of being made acquainted with his favourite pursuits, and of learning whether his conduct in private life intitled him to our respect equally with his public exertions. With such sentiments and feelings, we commenced the perusal of the present volume; the subject of which, and the respectability of its writer, Professor Dugald Stewart, invest it with strong claims to our attention.—It opens with a short account of Doctor Robertson's family; in which we are informed that he was the son of the Reverend William Robertson, minister of the Old Gray Friars church, and of Eleanor Pitcairn, daughter of David Pitcairn, Esquire, of Dreghorn; that he was born in 1721; and that 'till the year 1759, when, by his publication of his Scottish History, he fixed a new æra in the literary annals of his country, the habits and occurrences of his life were such as to supply few materials for biography; and the imagination is left to fill up a long interval spent in the silent pursuit of letters, and enlivened by the secret anticipation of future eminence.'

S.R.

Three clubs, to which Doctor Robertson belonged, are particularly mentioned by his Biographer. One, which was called *the Rankinean club*, from the name of the person in whose tavern its meetings were held, had carried on a private correspondence with Doctor Berkeley, the celebrated Bishop of Cloyne, on the subject of his metaphysical publications; and its members are said to have been numbered by him among the few who completely comprehended the scope of his reasonings

ings against the existence of matter. Another was formed with the view of cultivating the study of elocution, and preparing the members of it, by habits of extemporaneous discussion and debate, for conducting the business of popular assemblies. A third was called *the Select Society;* and among those who belonged to it we find the names of Doctor Robertson, Doctor Adam Smith, Lord Rosslyn, Lord Kaims, Mr. Ramsay the painter, Mr. John Home, Doctor Carlyle, Mr. Andrew Stewart, Sir Gilbert Elliott, and Lord Alemoor. To this institution, Doctor Robertson contributed his most zealous support.

The first publication of Dr. R. was a sermon preached in 1755 before the Society for propagating Christian knowlege; and his history of Scotland was presented to the world on the 1st of February 1759. The biographer informs us that this work was received with unbounded applause; and he presents us with extracts from several congratulatory letters addressed to the Author on this occasion. That which was written by Mr. Garrick is so truly characteristic of our old Friend's manner, that we cannot refrain from transcribing it:

'Mr. Garrick, beside writing to Millar, addressed himself directly to the Author. "Upon my word, I was never more entertained in all my life; and though I read it aloud to a friend and Mrs. Garrick, I finished the three first books at two sittings. I could not help writing to Millar, and congratulating him upon this great acquisition to his literary treasures.—I will assure you that there is no *love lost* (as the saying is) between you and Mrs. Garrick. She is resolved to see Scotland as soon as my affairs will permit: nor do I find her inclination in the least abated, though I read your *Second Book* (in which her religion is so exquisitely handled) with all the malevolent exertion I was master of—but it would not do; she thinks you right even in that, and still resolves to see Scotland. In short, if she can give up the Pope and his trumpery so readily to you, what must her poor husband think? I shall keep in England, I assure you; for you have convinced me how difficult it is to contend with the Scots in their own country."

We are much pleased with the following remarks of the Biographer:

'The peculiar circumstances of Scotland, since the union of the crowns, are extremely apt to warp our ideas with respect to its previous History. The happy but slow effects produced by the union of the kingdoms do not extend beyond the memory of some of our contemporaries; and the traditions we have received concerning the condition of our immediate predecessors are apt to impress us with a belief that, at a still more early period, a proportionally less degree of civilization prevailed. It requires an effort of reflection to conceive the effects which must have resulted from the residence of a court; and it is not, perhaps, easy for us to avoid underrating the importance

importance of that court while it existed. During the long and intimate intercourse with England, which preceded the disputed succession between Bruce and Baliol, it was certainly not without its share of that "barbaric pomp" which was then affected by the English Sovereigns; nor, under our later kings, connected as it was with the court of France, could it be altogether untinctured with those envied manners and habits, of which that country has been always regarded as the parent soil, and which do not seem to be the native growth of either part of our island. These circumstances, accordingly, appear to have operated so powerfully on the higher orders, that, even in their own vernacular tongue, their compositions do not suffer by a comparison with the style of their English contemporaries; and at the æra when Dr. Robertson's History closes, some of the purest and most correct performances of the age may be selected from the correspondence of our Scottish statesmen.

'This æra was followed by a long and melancholy period, not less fatal to genius than to morals; and which had scarcely arrived at its complete termination, when Dr. Robertson appeared as an Author; aspiring at once to adorn the monuments of former times when Scotland was yet a kingdom, and to animate his countrymen by his example, in reviving its literary honours.'

It appears that Dr. Robertson was long in determining what he should next undertake. Several subjects were suggested to him by his friends: but two appear to have divided his choice,—the History of Greece,—and that on which he finally decided, the History of the Emperor Charles the Fifth. We agree with Professor Stewart, that this was

'A determination not less fortunate for the public than for his own fame; as it engaged him, unexpectedly perhaps, in a train of researches not confined to the period, or to the quarter of the globe, that he had originally in view; but which, opening, as he advanced, new and more magnificent prospects, attracted his curiosity to two of the greatest and most interesting subjects of speculation in the History of Human Affairs;—the enterprises of modern ambition in the Western World, and the traces of antient wisdom and arts existing in the East.'

We think that our readers will not be displeased with the following extract from a letter written to Dr. Robertson by Mr. Hume, who perused the History of Charles the Fifth while the sheets were in the press:

"You know that you and I have always been on the footing of finding in each other's productions *something to blame, and something to commend;* and therefore you may perhaps expect also some seasoning of the former kind; but really neither my leisure nor inclination allowed me to make such remarks, and I sincerely believe you have afforded me very small materials for them. However, such particulars as occur to my memory I shall mention. *Maltreat* is a Scotticism which occurs once. What the devil had you to do with that old-fashioned dangling word *wherewith?* I should as soon take back

whereupon,

whereupon, *whereunto*, and *wherewithal*. I think the only tolerable, decent gentleman of the family is *wherein*; and I should not choose to be often seen in his company. But I know your affection for *wherewith* proceeds from your partiality to Dean Swift, whom I can often laugh with, whose style I can even approve, but surely can never admire. It has no harmony, no eloquence, no ornament; and not much correctness, whatever the English may imagine. Were not their literature still in a somewhat barbarous state, that Author's place would not be so high among their classics. But what a fancy is this you have taken of saying always *an hand*, *an heart*, *an head*? Have you *an ear*? Do you not know that this (n) is added before vowels to prevent the cacophony, and ought never to take place before (h) when that letter is sounded? It is never pronounced in these words: why should it be wrote? Thus, I should say, a *history*, and an *historian*; and so would you too, if you had any sense. But you tell me, that Swift does otherwise. To be sure there is no reply to that; and we must swallow your *hath* too upon the same authority. I will see you d——d sooner.—But I will endeavour to keep my temper.

"I do not like this sentence in page 149. *This step was taken in consequence of the Treaty Wolsey had concluded with the Emperor at Brussels, and which had hitherto been kept secret.* Si sic omnia dixisses, I should never have been plagued with hearing your praises so often sounded, and that fools preferred your style to mine. Certainly it had been better to have said, *Which Wolsey*, &c. That relative ought very seldom to be omitted, and is here particularly requisite to preserve a symmetry between the two members of the sentence. You omit the relative too often, which is a colloquial barbarism, as Mr. Johnson calls it.

"Your periods are sometimes, though not often, too long. Suard * will be embarrassed with them, as the modish French style runs into the other extreme."

Mr. Hume's objection to the omission of relatives might be applied to great numbers of writers, of all ranks, all descriptions, and all periods; and we agree with him completely in the force of his censure on this inelegant and inaccurate practice.

After an interval of eight years from the publication of this work, Dr. Robertson produced his History of America; and on this occasion, also, the biographer has inserted various congratulatory letters which the Doctor received from several persons, 'whose names render their judgments of men and books objects of public curiosity.' That which was addressed to him by Mr. Gibbon has been already published by Lord Sheffield, in his memoirs of Mr. G.; and Professor Stewart observes that the copy of it, found among Dr. Robertson's papers, corresponds verbatim with that which Mr. Gibbon appears to

* M. Suard was the French translator of Dr. R.'s History.

have

have had in his own possession, thus affording a proof of the care which he bestowed on his epistolary compositions. It is followed by a letter from Lord Mansfield, which, the Biographer asserts, bears no mark of the superior mind of that eminent man: but it certainly does not disgrace him, and, considering it as a common epistolary effusion, this may be deemed some commendation. We are next presented with a letter from Mr. Edmund Burke, written in his best manner; and we wish our readers to share with us the pleasure which we have received from the following part of it:

"I have always thought with you, that we possess at this time very great advantages towards the knowledge of human nature. We need no longer go to History to trace it in all stages and periods. History, from its comparative youth, is but a poor instructor. When the Egyptians called the Greeks Children in Antiquities, we may well call them Children; and so we may call all those nations which were able to trace the progress of society only within their own limits. But now the great Map of Mankind is unrolled at once, and there is no state or gradation of barbarism, and no mode of refinement which we have not at the same moment under our view: the very different civility of Europe and of China; the barbarism of Persia and of Abyssinia; the erratic manners of Tartary and of Arabia; the savage state of North America and of New Zealand. Indeed you have made a noble use of the advantages you have had. You have employed philosophy to judge on manners, and from manners you have drawn new resources for philosophy. I only think that in one or two points you have hardly done justice to the savage character.

"There remains before you a great field. *Periculosæ plenum opus aleæ tractas, et incedis per ignes suppositos cineri doloso.* When even those ashes will be spread over the present fire, God knows. I am heartily sorry that we are now supplying you with that kind of dignity and concern, which is purchased to History at the expence of mankind. I had rather by far that Dr. Robertson's pen were only employed in delineating the humble scenes of political œconomy, than the great events of a civil war. However, if our statesmen had read the book of human nature instead of the Journals of the House of Commons, and History instead of Acts of Parliament, we should not by the latter have furnished out so ample a page for the former. For my part, I have not been, nor am I, very forward in my speculations on this subject. All that I have ventured to make have hitherto proved fallacious. I confess I thought the Colonies, left to themselves, could not have made any thing like the present resistance to the whole power of this country and its allies. I did not think it could have been done without the declared interference of the House of Bourbon. But I looked on it as very probable that France and Spain would before this time have taken a decided part. In both these conjectures I have judged amiss.—You will smile when I send you a trifling temporary production, made for the occasion of a day, and to perish with it, in return for your immortal work.

But our exchange resembles the politics of the times. You send out solid wealth, the accumulation of ages, and in return you get a few flying leaves of poor American paper. However, you have the mercantile comfort of finding the balance of trade infinitely in your favour; and I console myself with the snug consideration of uninformed natural acuteness, that I have my warehouse full of goods at another's expence.

"Adieu, Sir; continue to instruct the world; and whilst we carry on a poor unequal conflict with the passions and prejudices of our day, perhaps with no better weapons than other passions and prejudices of our own, convey wisdom at our expence to future generations."

The last sentence is both a fine and a just compliment to those men of letters, who do not

——————"narrow their mind,
And to party give up what was meant for mankind,"

(GOLDSMITH.)

and should comfort them when, considering themselves to be as much formed for action as for speculation, they are tempted to lament that fortune has not opened to them the flowery fields of public life.—Dr. Robertson is justly censured by his biographer, for the disposition which he has shewn to palliate or to veil the enormities of the Spaniards in their American conquests.

The unfortunate contest between Great Britain and America put an end to the Doctor's plan for the completion of his general history of that continent: but his active mind then led him to think of other subjects for the employment of his studious leisure. He seems to have meditated a history of Great Britain, from the revolution to the accession of the house of Hanover: but he soon abandoned this idea, and the only publication with which he afterward favoured the world was his *Disquisition concerning Antient India.*

Having thus conducted Doctor Robertson to the end of his literary career, the biographer considers his general merits as an historian. He observes that the strain of his composition is flowing, equal, and majestic; harmonious beyond that of most English writers, yet seldom deviating, in quest of melody, into inversion, redundancy, or affectation; that his works have been allowed, by the most competent judges, to be remarkably free from Scotticisms; and that the elevation of his language particularly qualified him for delineating the characters of princes, statesmen, and warriors, and recording events which have happened on the great theatre of public affairs: but that it was not so perfectly well calculated for the engaging and pathetic details of domestic life. He also remarks that,

'Whenever his subject admits of being enriched or adorned by political or philosophical disquisition, by picturesque description, or

by the interesting details of a romantic episode, he scruples not to try his strength with those who have excelled the most in these different departments of literature; uniformly, however, avoiding to mingle in the humble scenes of ordinary life, or to meet his rivals on any ground where he did not feel himself completely their equal.'

Professor Stewart then passes to a review of Dr. Robertson's more active occupations: of which the most conspicuous was the part which he took in the Supreme Ecclesiastical Court of Scotland. Of the constitution of that court the Professor gives a general outline; for the materials of which, he informs us, he is obliged to a paper drawn up, at the request of Dr. Robertson's son, by the Reverend George Hill, D.D., principal of St. Mary's College, Aberdeen. We learn that Dr. Robertson's abilities secured to him, for a long course of years, an unrivalled influence in guiding its deliberations; and his talents for debate are mentioned by his biographer in terms of great encomium. The Professor says that the characteristic of his eloquence was persuasion; that his general conduct was marked by judgment, temper, and address; that good sense was the most prominent feature in his intellectual character; that he was a most agreeable and instructive companion, a good son, a good brother, a good husband, a good father, exemplary in the discharge of his duties, and always attentive to his clerical character.

'His health began apparently to decline in the end of the year 1791. Till then, it had been more uniformly good than might have been expected from his studious habits; but, about this period, he suddenly discovered strong symptoms of jaundice, which gradually undermined his constitution, and terminated at length in a lingering and fatal illness. He had the prospect of death long before him; a prospect deeply afflicting to his family and his friends; but of which, without any visible abatement in his spirits, he happily availed himself, to adorn the doctrines which he had long taught, by an example of fortitude and of Christian resignation. In the concluding stages of his disorder, he removed from Edinburgh to *Grange House* in the neighbourhood, where he had the advantage of a freer air, and a more quiet situation, and (what he valued more than most men) the pleasure of rural objects, and of a beautiful landscape. While he was able to walk abroad, he commonly passed a part of the day in a small garden, enjoying the simple gratifications it afforded with all his wonted relish. Some who now hear me * will long remember,—among the trivial yet interesting incidents which marked these last weeks of his memorable life,—his daily visits to the fruit-trees, (which were then in blossom,) and the smile with which he, more than once, contrasted the interest he took in their progress

* This memoir was read at different meetings of the Royal Society of Edinburgh.

with the event which was to happen before their maturity. At his particular desire, I saw him (for the last time) on the 4th of June 1793, when his weakness confined him to his couch, and his articulation was already beginning to fail: and it is in obedience to a request with which he then honoured me, that I have ventured, without consulting my own powers, to offer this tribute to his memory. He died on the 11th of the same month, in the 71st year of his age.

'I have already hinted at his domestic happiness. Nothing was wanting to render it perfect while he lived; and, at his death, he had the satisfaction to leave, in prosperous circumstances, a numerous family united to each other, and to their excellent mother, by the tenderest affection. His eldest son, an eminent lawyer at the Scotch bar, has been only prevented by the engagements of an active profession, from sustaining his father's literary name; while his two younger sons, both of whom very early embraced a military life, have carried his vigour and enterprize into a different career of ambition. His eldest daughter is married to Mr. Brydone, the well-known author of one of our most elegant and popular books of Travels. Another is the widow of the late John Russell, Esq. Clerk to the Signet.'

Dr. Robertson's first preferment was the living of Gladsmuir in East Lothian, to which he was presented by the Earl of Hopetoun. In 1759, he was appointed chaplain of Stirling Castle; in 1761, one of his Majesty's Chaplains in ordinary for Scotland; in 1762, he was chosen Principal of the University of Edinburgh; and two years afterward, the office of King's Historiographer for Scotland, with an annual salary of 200l., was revived in his favor.

From the extracts with which we have presented the reader, he will see that this work is judiciously and ably written. It discovers the language, indeed, and perhaps the partiality of friendship; and probably something more might have been accomplished, to use the biographer's own words, 'by a writer whose pursuits were more congenial to Dr. Robertson's:' but with the performance as it stands we have been much pleased; and we have no doubt that the literary world at large, as well as Dr. R.'s particular friends, will be perfectly satisfied with this tribute of Professor Stewart's regard for the memory of that eminent Writer.

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ART. II. *Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, Vol. IV.*

[*Article concluded from the Rev. for May, p.* 23.]

HAVING before furnished our readers with a brief abstract of a considerable portion of this large volume, we now attend to the remainder of its contents.

To determine the true Place of a Planet, in an elliptical Orbit, directly from the mean Anomaly, by converging Series. By David Rittenhouse,

Rittenhouse, *LL. D., President A. P. S.*—This problem, which is known by the name of *Kepler's problem*, was solved by that geometrician indirectly and tediously: but the present determination, which is not the only one of the kind, is a direct solution. The memoir is very short, and supposes much to be previously known.

On the Improvement of Time-Keepers. By the Same.—One cause of inequality, in the vibrations of a pendulum, is the alteration which takes place in the density of the air; and to remedy this inequality is the object of Dr. R.'s improvement. He proposes to extend upwards the inflexible rod on which the ball of the pendulum is fixed, beyond the point of suspension; and to affix, at a distance equal to that at which the ball is placed, another ball of equal surface, and of the same shape, but much lighter. The proposer of this contrivance has not ascertained its merits by decisive experiments, for he says,

'The only experiment I have hithero made on this subject has been merely to shew that a pendulum can be made in this manner which shall vibrate quicker in a dense medium than in one more rare, contrary to what takes place with common pendulums.

'I made a compound pendulum, on the principles above mentioned, of about one foot in its whole length. This pendulum, on many trials, made in the air 57 vibrations in a minute. On immersing the whole in water it made 59 vibrations in the same time, shewing evidently that its motion was quicker in so dense a medium as water than in the air. When the lower bob or pendulum only was plunged in water, it made no more than 44 vibrations in a minute; the remaining 15, being solely the effect of the pressure of the water against the upper vessel.'

A Letter from Mr. Andrew Ellicott *to Robert Patterson, in two Parts.*—The first part of this paper contains a number of astronomical observations; and the second gives the theory and method of calculating the aberration of the stars, the nutation of the earth's axis, and the semi-annual equation.—We have little to add to this brief enunciation of the contents of the memoir, but that the latter part includes an account of the method of laying down the plan for the new city of Washington.

A Letter from Mr. Andrew Ellicott, *to Mr. Robert Patterson.*—This letter offers a method of calculating the excentric anomaly of the planets.

Method of raising the common Logarithm of any Number immediately. By David Rittenhouse, *President of the Society.*—The principle of this method is not explained; and, in point of facility in arithmetical computation, it does not appear su-

perior to the common methods, by the properties of numbers and converging series. The example taken by the author is log. 99, which may easily be found several ways: thus l. 99 = l. 11 + l. 9 = l. 11 + 2. l. 3 = l. 10 + l. $(1+\frac{1}{10})$ + 2. l. 3 = l. 10 + 2. l. 3 + $M\left\{\frac{1}{10} - \frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{(10)}2 + \&c.\right\}$

or $l.99 = l.100 + l.\left(1-\frac{1}{100}\right) = 2l.10 + M.\left\{\frac{1}{100}\frac{1}{2(100)}2 + \&c.\right\}$

Description of a Machine for saving Persons from the upper Stories of a House on Fire. By Nicholas Collin, *D. D., the Inventor. With a Drawing from the Model.*—Whatever may be the practical efficacy of this machine, it is at least a simple one. On a broad plank moveable on wheels, suppose a hollow cylinder to be erected: in this cylinder, as a socket, another cylinder is made to move, by means of ropes fastened to windlasses, upward or downward; across the top of the last mentioned pole, or cylinder, is put a lever, with arms of unequal length: at the end of the longer arm, is swung a basket, capable of containing four persons; and from the end of the shorter arm, a rope is fastened to the plank or platform of the whole machine. From this description, the use of the contrivance may be discerned: for, if the shaft be elevated within the socket, then, in order to preserve the same distance from the plank, the end of the shorter arm of the lever must approach the shaft, or the shorter arm must descend and the longer ascend; and therefore the basket, into which persons in danger from fire are to be received, is elevated from two causes; while a reversion of the operation makes the basket descend. It appears to us, however, that there would be considerable difficulty in applying the end, to which the basket is fixed, to the window or other part of the building at which the persons in danger may be supposed to be placed.

An easy and accurate Method of adjusting the Glasses of Hadley's Quadrant, on Land for the Back Observation. By Robert Patterson.—The necessary apparatus, and its use, are thus briefly described:

'Take a piece of plane glass (a piece of looking-glass will do very well)—take the polish off one side of it, and cement it, with the rough side down, on the flat side of the segment of a wooden ball. The ball may be about three or four inches in diameter, and the piece of glass of about the same dimensions. Or the glass may be cemented to a piece of board, and this board to a three or four pound shot, or small hand-granade, when either of these may be conveniently had.

'Next take a piece of triangular board of about four inches on the side, and through this cut a triangular mortice of about two inches

inches on the side. Near the corners of this board let there be inserted three small nails, or pieces of wire, to serve as feet for it to stand on.

'*Method of making the Adjustment, or finding the Quantity of the Index-Error.*

'At any time when the sun shines, set your triangular board on a table, the cill of a window, or any other convenient stand exposed to the sun, and place the ball with the piece of glass, on the triangular mortice; which, touching the ball only in three points, will consequently keep it steady in any position. Turn the ball into such a position that the plane of the glass may be, as nearly as you can judge, parallel to the equator; and then incline this plane, in the direction of the meridian passing through the sun, till the sun be about 45° above it.

'Now take your octant, and by the fore-obervation, bring one of the limbs of the sun's image, seen by a double reflection from the specula of the instrument, exactly into contact with the image of the same limb, seen by a single reflection from the surface of the glass plane, and read off the angle pointed out by the index. Immediately turn round your instrument, and bring the same limbs into contact by the back-observation. If the angle now pointed out by the index be exactly the supplement (to 180°) of the former angle, the horizon-glass for the back-observation will be truly adjusted, or exactly at right-angles with the horizon-glass for the fore-observation: but if these two be not equal, then take half their difference, which will be the correction or index-error for the back-observation; supposing the fore horizon-glass to have been previously well adjusted. This correction will be additive to all angles measured by the back-observation, when the angle pointed out by the index in the first of the above observations is greater than the supplement of the other, and vice versa.

'For the sake of greater accuracy, you may repeat these observations till you have taken two, four, or six sets; observing that if in your first set you begin with the fore-observation, as above directed, then in your second set you must begin with the back-observation, and so on. A mean of the corrections thus obtained may be taken as the *true* correction of adjustment.'

In the conclusion of the paper, are added a few miscellaneous remarks relative to the subject.

An Essay tending to improve intelligible Signals, and to discover an universal Language. From an anonymous Correspondent in France (probably the Inventor of the Telegraph). Translated from the French.—Opposite to several numbers in a constructed table, are put syllables, so that a phrase, when translated from the table, consists of a series of fractions; thus, *il ne devroit pas* is expressed by $\frac{5}{75}, \frac{3}{16}, \frac{1}{56}, \frac{4}{46}, \frac{1}{15}, \frac{3}{31}$; and these fractions are again to be translated by the operator at the tele-

graph. There does not seem to us to be much ingenuity in this scheme, nor is the author very clear and explicit.—In the latter part of this short essay, he proposes the construction of an universal character, by the aid of figures.

Barometrical Measurement of the Blue Ridge, Warm Spring, and Alleghany Mountains, in Virginia, taken in the Summer of the Year 1791.—Measurements by means of the barometer are uncertain: but the present measurements, according to the author, are the more worthy of reliance, from the circumstance of the changes in the barometer being smaller and less frequent in Virginia than in England. By a letter of Mr. Jefferson, inserted in the memoir, it appears that this gentleman's measurement by an instrument is not materially different from that of the author.

Observations made on the Old French Landing at Presqu' Isle, to determine the Latitude of the Town of Erie. In a Letter from Andrew Ellicott, *to Robert Patterson, Secretary of the Society.*—From these observations, the latitude of the landing is 42° 8′ 17″ N., and the latitude of the beginning of the town, 42° 8′ 14″. N.

An Improvement in Boats for River Navigations. Described in a Letter to Mr. Robert Patterson. By Nicholas King.—The following extract shews why the lock-navigation, so common in this country, cannot be adopted in America:

'The nature of the country, the rugged courses of most of the rivers, and the sudden swells they are liable to from the heavy rains, render the lock-navigation, with towing-paths along the banks of the rivers, as in Europe, in most cases impracticable, or very expensive. Nature seems here to have precluded the inhabitants from other assistance in navigating rivers, than manual labour, expensive and tedious. The difficulties attending the navigation of our rivers against the current are such as to render them much less serviceable than rivers in general are; and you are under the necessity of having the boats of great length and narrow; and of sending with them double the number of hands required to navigate them when loaded, in order to enable them to *set* the boat up against the current on their return. These boats are more difficult to steer and manage, in intricate and rapid parts of the rivers, on account of their length; are subject to receive damage from striking on rocks and sand-banks, and from the uneven surface and motion of the water where the descent is rapid, or the weather boisterous; and frequently get twisted and ruined when the water subsides and leaves them on the shore.

'Supposing that the lock-navigation, or overcoming the descent of the river by means of locks, could be generally reduced to practice, yet the length of these locks, in proportion to the tonnage of the boats, would render the expence of their construction more than the revenue arising from the tolls would warrant: but few indeed are the

rivers

rivers in which the navigation by locks is practicable, on account of the rapidity of the waters and violence of the freshes. Hence it follows, that notwithstanding this has hitherto been the most prevalent mode of overcoming such obstructions in rivers, it ought not to be attempted here, if better modes can be pointed out.'

The plan which Mr. King proposes is to convey the boat over an inclined plane, and to compose it of four boats put together with hinges. The advantage of this contrivance is that, at the inclined plane, the boat can be taken in pieces, and the several parts conveyed over without much difficulty:—moreover, that, in descending down the river, the *component* boats may be separately navigated; and, in a river full of rapids, sands, and rocks, a short boat is much more commodious and manageable than a long one.—The design of the author is illustrated with plates.

General Principles and Construction of a Submarine Vessel. Communicated by D. Bushnell *of Connecticut, the Inventor, in a Letter of October* 1787, *to Thomas Jefferson, then Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States at Paris.*—A few months since, the people of this country were amused, or alarmed, according to their disposition, by the project of submarine boats, which were to convey hither an army of invaders, or were to enter our harbours and blow up our ships of war. However strange or ridiculous the idea might appear, it still had some foundation; and the present paper contains the description of a small submarine boat and its apparatus, with which an attempt was actually made to blow up a ship of fifty guns. As the description of the boat, &c. is too long for us to insert, we must be contented with extracting an account of an experiment made with it:

'After various attempts to find an operator to my wish, I sent one who appeared more expert than the rest, from New-York, to a 50 gun ship lying not far from Governor's Island. He went under the ship, and attempted to fix the wooden screw into her bottom, but struck, as he supposes, a bar of iron, which passes from the rudder hinge, and is spiked under the ship's quarter. Had he moved a few inches, which he might have done, without rowing, I have no doubt but he would have found wood where he might have fixed the screw; or if the ship were sheathed with copper, he might easily have pierced it: but, not being well skilled in the management of the vessel, in attempting to move to another place, he lost the ship. After seeking her in vain for some time, he rowed some distance, and rose to the surface of the water, but found day-light had advanced so far, that he durst not renew the attempt. He says that he could easily have fastened the magazine under the stem of the ship, above water, as he rowed up to the stern, and touched it before he descended. Had he fastened it there, the explosion of one hundred and fifty pounds of powder,

powder, (the quantity contained in the magazine), must have been fatal to the ship. In his return from the ship to New-York, he passed near Governor's Island, and thought he was discovered by the enemy, on the island: being in haste to avoid the danger he feared, he cast off the magazine, as he imagined it retarded him in the swell, which was very considerable. After the magazine had been cast off one hour, (the time the internal apparatus was set to run,) it blew up with great violence.'

This vessel was completed in the year 1775, and employed by the author against the English shipping during the contest in America.

The Description of a Mould Board of the least Resistance, and of the easiest and most certain Construction. Taken from a Letter to Sir John Sinclair, President of the Board of Agriculture at London.—The writer's description of the board, and of the mode of forming it, is so minute, that it is impossible here to give an adequate notion of it; and we hesitate to pronounce on its practical usefulness. In the latter part of the memoir, the lover of peace breaks out; and this constructor of the mould-board of a plough calculates what improvements in the Highlands of Scotland, and in the mountains of Auvergne, might have been produced by the money which has been thrown away in a single war.

Thermometrical Observations made at Fort Washington, commencing June 1790, *and ending April* 1791. *By* Daniel Britt *and* G. Turner: *To which are added, for some Time, the Rise and Fall of the Ohio.*—These observations are recorded in a series of tables.

Calculations relating to Grist and Saw Mills, for determining the Quantity of Water necessary to produce the desired Effect when the Head and Fall are given, in order to ascertain the Dimensions of a new-invented Steam Engine, intended to give Motion to Water Wheels in Places where there is no Fall, and but a very small Stream or Spring. By John Nancarrow.—According to the author's own account, we are here furnished with a correction of Emerson's faulty expression for the velocity of water issuing from an orifice; if s be the space fallen through, $m = 16$, then, from the principles of mechanics, the velocity $= \sqrt{4ms}$: but, when water issues from an orifice, Emerson considers the velocity as being that which is acquired through a space equal to half of the height of the water in the vessel, and consequently puts its $= \sqrt{2ms}$: Mr. N., however, without offering his reasons, will have it $= 2\sqrt{ms}$.

Previously to the determination of the dimensions of the steam engine necessary to be used, Mr. N. examines and calculates

culates the effects of several grist and saw mills, in order to know what quantity of water must be thrown into the penstock in a given time; and calculations for this purpose are inserted.

Observations for determining the Latitude and Longitude of the Town of Natchez. By Andrew Ellicott, *Esq.*—These observations are merely registered and arranged.

Description of a Speedy Elevator. By the Inventor, Nicholas Collin, *D.D. With two Drawings from a Model, representing it folded and wound up.*—This is certainly a very ingenious machine. Four parts shut, one within the other: each part (except the most interior) consists of two rectangular parallelopipeds joined by three pairs of ribs; and by a very simple contrivance, all the parts are raised from their sockets at the same time, and with the same velocity. The chief advantage of this contrivance is the circumstance of its being easily portable: otherwise, a machine consisting of two pieces would answer all the purposes for which it is intended; and an increase of velocity of ascent of the shaft might easily be procured, by altering the windlass. It is, however, fair to state its advantages as described by its inventor:

'This machine combines these advantages:—Ready approach to heights otherwise not accessible without great trouble; speedy ascent and descent; convenient folding for keeping under cover, and for easy conveyance. It can be applied to several useful purposes:—Quick hoisting and lowering of things on many occasions, particularly saving of goods from upper stories in cases of *incend*; high elevation and speedy exchange of signals; these being light may be raised three hundred feet, and above interjacent hills; elevation of a person for taking views, and quick descent when required; as reconnoitring an enemy within shot: a machine calculated for lifting him at least one hundred feet by eight men can be light enough for carrying on a waggon by two horses.'

For this invention, Dr. C. was honoured with 'the Magillanian gold medal.' R.W.

A Disquisition on Wool-bearing Animals. By Dr. James Anderson, *of North Britain.*—The 8th volume of the Bath Society's Papers contains a memoir by Dr. Anderson on the subject of wool-bearing animals; which, by the letter of the Secretary, dated Feb. 25, 1795, appears to have been written subsequently to this Disquisition, and to have been enlarged with additional remarks. In the present paper, after having laid down the doctrine of the influence of breed over-ruling that of climate, two general facts are stated: 1st, That the sheep is not necessarily a wool-bearing animal, and that there are only certain breeds of it which can be thus distinguished. 2dly, That there are other animals, some breeds of which carry wool, or at

at least fleeces which admit of being shorn like the wool of sheep, and of being applied to the same purposes in arts. The practical inference is, that the different breeds of animals preserve in general their distinguishing peculiarities, when the race is not contaminated by an intermixture with others; and that it is a matter of great economical concern, to propagate as many of the wool-bearing breeds of animals as it may be possible to procure, in preference to those of the short-haired kind.

To this paper is added a kind of postscript, containing a later communication by the author on the same subject; with a sample taken from the fleece of a sheep brought from Jamaica to England: which he adduces as a farther proof of the influence of breed over climate.

Memoir on the Subject of a new Plant, growing in Pennsylvania, particularly in the Vicinity of Philadelphia. By Mr. Beauvois.—This plant, which is said to have been noticed by Mr. Muhlenberg under the name of *Ixia*, and sent to England to Mr. Smith (probably Dr. Smith, the President of the Linnæan Society) by the name of *Bartonia clandestina*, is placed by Mr. Beauvois in the class of *Pontederia*, and is new christened *Heterandra reniformis;* on account of its having two different kinds of stamina.—A botanical description is added.

Supplementum Indicis Floræ Lancastriensis. Auctore Henrico Muhlenberg.—This paper is merely a list of the names of plants, arranged according to the different classes.

An Account of a Kettle for boiling Inflammable Fluids. In a Letter from Thomas Smith *to Robert Patterson.*—In order to prevent accidents from the boiling over of inflammable fluids, it is here recommended to insert a long open spout in the brim of the kettle, and to apply wet sponges or rags to the bottom. It does not, however, appear that the utility of this invention has been sufficiently ascertained by experiment.

Memoir on the Sand-hills of Cape Henry in Virginia. By B. Henry Latrobe, *Engineer.*—Also a Supplemental Paper.—Some geogenists make *fire*, and others *water*, the principal agent in the formation of the globe, or at least of its present surface: but Mr. Latrobe contends that another element, *the wind*, has, in certain districts, no inconsiderable share in the operation. The whole of the extensive country of Virginia, from the Falls to the ocean, is evidently factitious; and it is supposed to be generated by the operation of the wind on the fine sand of which the shore, and the bed of the Atlantic near the shore, consist. The daily action of the flood-tide conveys a certain quantity of this sand above high-water mark; and this, being dried by the sun

and air, is carried farther in-land by the wind. The present state of the sand-hills of Cape Henry, and the fossils obtained in digging wells, may be thought completely to justify this hypothesis. Should these sand-hills advance by the accumulation of sand blown from the shore, and at last swallow up the neighbouring swamp; and should some future philosopher attend the digging of a well an hundred feet deep, at the bottom of which, vegetable and animal exuviæ would be discovered; he might, observes Mr. Latrobe, adduce these facts in support of the theory of a deluge sweeping the sand of the upper country, and depositing it along the line of its conflict with the waves of the ocean: when, perhaps, in reality, the stratum of sand was not left by the water, but formed by the action of the wind.

The Supplemental Paper contains Notices communicated by Dr. Barton in proof of the recess of the sea.

Account of Crystallized Basaltes found in Pennsylvania. By Thomas P. Smith.—Basaltes are found on the Conewaga hills in great quantities, both crystallized and amorphous. The crystals are generally tetraedal, and of a very fine grain. Mr. S. is of opinion that these basaltes have a Neptunian origin, since they are interspersed with large masses of *brechia* composed of siliceous pebbles evidently rounded by friction, imbedded in red free-stone.

Philological Views of some very ancient Words in several Languages. By the Rev. Nicholas Collin, *D. D. Rector of the Swedish Churches in Pennsylvania.*—This ingenious and elaborate dissertation is replete with matter for the amusement of the etymologist and the philosopher. Dr. Collin makes the following general remarks:

'To trace the early rudiments of languages is important in several respects:—Words made for new objects prove the previous want of them.—If their etymology can be ascertained, it shews the relation of these objects with other previous things.—The similarity and diversity of primitive terms point out the early distinctions of tribes; and guard against the historical errors, so common, of tracing whole nations from the same stock, by whatever similarity of languages, without discriminating what results from the mingling of different flocks.—Among the great part of mankind, that has neither writings, nor other monuments, a contemplation of their languages will yet discover many things otherwise inscrutable.—Nations that have authentic ancient records, and other monuments, will yet derive knowledge of greater antiquity from a critical study of their language, because their ancestors spoke on many things before they could write history, compose fables, or form any significant and lasting specimens of arts. Though languages change from various causes, and sometimes from whim, yet mankind in general do not make sudden and great

great alterations: old words will for a long period retain their essential features; and when dismissed from general use, remain for ages in local districts, or among the simple classes of society: when finally lost, they often leave kindred words behind, that convey at least a part of their signification.'——'The classical languages are edifices, whose ground-works were laid in a wilderness, on materials brought from diverse quarries of barbarous tongues: the roots of many classic words may therefore grow in Tartary and Æthiopia; many etymons and coæval words may be found in the ancient European languages, and even in their modern descendants. The classics therefore do not merit the excessive praise for antiquity, so generally bestowed on them (especially on the Hebrew); but they are very valuable for their ample writings, by which their affinities with each other, and with many other languages can be known: the Greek, as both copious and ancient, is of particular importance.'——'Those European languages which are commonly considered as entirely derived from others, will be found, on closer inspection, to possess words that are not found in these, and also roots of corresponding words in them.—Thus the whole of the English cannot be accounted for from the Anglo-Saxon, Danish, Norman, French, and British: the French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese have relations beyond the wide circle of Latin, Teutonic, and Gothic, Greek, Hebrew, Celtic, and Arabian.'

After having premised these general observations, the author proceeds to illustrate them by considering, 1st, what knowlege is to be obtained from existing words, respecting the early State of Mankind; and, 2dly, respecting the early Condition of the Earth, Animals and Vegetables.

We have not space for Dr. Collin's learned and numerous illustrations of his hypothesis relative to the light which is to be derived from comparing the families of words: but we shall insert his brief general view of the subject:

'Languages are widely scattered and jumbled fragments of a mirror, which, when skilfully joined and polished, will present instructive pictures of men and things in pristine times. True philology is therefore so far from being a mere amusement, as to deserve the application of individual talents, and the cherishing care of nations.'

Several parts of this paper evince that the author is an amiable man; and the whole certainly manifests much deep research and profound disquisition. Moy.

Here we are now to close our concise view of this very bulky publication; and if we were to speak generally of its value and importance, we confess that we should say that they are not commensurate with its size. We would offer to our American brethren the advice which has frequently been addressed to European societies; viz. to exemplify a greater degree of selection in the choice of their materials, and an anxiety to produce a *good* volume of transactions rather than a *large* one. G.2.

See p. 251.

ART.

ART. IV. *An Inquiry into the antient Greek Game*, supposed to have been invented by Palamedes, antecedent to the Siege of Troy; with Reasons for believing the same to have been known from remote Antiquity in China, and progressively improved into the Chinese, Indian, Persian, and European Chess. Also, Two Dissertations: I. On the Athenian Skirophoria. II. On the Mystical Meaning of the Bough and Umbrella, in the Skiran Rites. 4to. pp. 190. 14s. Boards. Becket. 1801.

A CAREFUL investigation of the customs and institutions of the Antients, however it may be derided by some persons, is attended with many beneficial effects to the cause of literature: since, while it gratifies a laudable curiosity, it serves in the mean time to elucidate and unfold many collateral doubts and difficulties; opens a variety of new sources of information; and answers the important purpose either of removing illiberal prejudice, or introducing a greater certainty and more intimate knowlege of the truth.

Though the subject of the present Inquiry may at first appear trivial, the author will be found deserving of no slight commendation for the ingenuity and learning which he has displayed, and for the curious and able disquisitions which he has here presented to the public.—He shews himself throughout to be possessed of no common share of classical knowlege, and to have a peculiarly happy talent for that species of criticism which forms the basis of this work. He modestly withholds his name from the title-page: but we learn that the volume is the production of Mr. Christie, junior, son of the well-known Mr. C. of Pall Mall; and it reflects equal credit on the parent who has given so good an education to his son, and on the son who has made so good an use of it.

The chief matter proposed to be elucidated in this Inquiry is the origin of the antient and well-known game of chess; 'whether it be more natural to conceive the game to have been invented by an effort of the mind of one person, and devised, formed, and perfected at one instant of time; or whether it may not be considered probable that some rude materials existed, which, falling into the hands of ingenious and able workmen, at different periods, were variously fashioned by them, and united at last in the elegant structure of the modern game.'

In order to ascertain the truth of this point, the author enters on his subject with a discussion of the Greek games, the πεττεια and τριοδιον, or game of merrils; and he combats, with much ingenuity, an opinion sanctioned by Sophocles and Euripides, that *Palamedes* was the inventor of the πεττεια. He next passes to the consideration of the *Ludus Latrunculorum* of the Romans;

mans; which, from a want of accuracy in the description given of it by Latin writers, is involved in some degree of obscurity. This game appears to be a descendant of the Greek πεττεια; and Dr. Hyde has endeavoured to shew that it nearly resembles our game of draughts.—He then proceeds to consider the Roman *Alveus*, another game, allied to the *Ludus Latrunculorum*, and played with dice in the manner of backgammon. There seems to be this difference between the *Alveus* and former games, that this had its central line denoted by the *cross*, instead of ἱερὰ γραμμὴ; and the author subjoins the following remark: 'This *cross*, however, upon the *Alveus*, may be considered as the first Christian moralization upon any game; and from an endeavour to make the relaxations of men subservient to religion, the custom of drawing moral reflections from the game of *Chess* became afterwards common with the monks of the middle ages.'

The next chapter contains remarks on the game of the πλινθιον; which resembled the former, and was played with dice. It was 'constructed by the Orientals upon the foundation of the πεττεια, which, from the moves in playing it being directed by the cast of the *die*, resembled rather the wagers of shepherds, than the stratagems of war; notwithstanding which, the object in playing the game, and even (as may appear upon minute investigation,) the very construction of the board, and disposition of the pieces, shew it to have been but a perversion of the military πεττεια, whilst the terms respecting it were purely pastoral.' To illustrate his remarks on this subject, the author quotes, from the Greek anthology, part of one of the epigrams of Agathias, in which king Zeno is described as forming a party at the game; and in which the point turns, with a simplicity peculiar to the Greek epigram, on the ill-success of the king. Whether our readers will take the hint, 'and avoid entering the lists, since even a king could not escape a defeat,' we cannot foretell.

Passing on to the consideration of the terms used in the antient games, and the nature of the ἱερὰ γραμμὴ or *vallum*, the writer proceeds to trace the resemblance between the Chinese game of chess and the antient πεττεια. For a particular account of the Chinese mode of playing, the reader is referred to the treatise of Dr. Hyde; and some remarks are added on the origin of the king and other pieces of chess, which the author very ingeniously considers as a personification of the ἱερὰ γραμμὴ.—In confirmation of these conjectures, he observes that the game is termed by the Chinese "Siang Ki," or the game of Elephants; whence he forms a probable conjecture that it is derived from the Indo-Persian, and originally

ginally from the Greek πεττεια. This supposition is founded on an hypothesis respecting the elevation of pebbles as the boundary mark, which are now denominated, *King*, *Queen*, *Bishop*, *Knight*, and *Rook*.

Some farther remarks are offered, in the two following chapters, respecting the Indian game of Chess, and the Hindu claim to the original invention; and the author concludes his annotations with the following candid and modest declaration:

'I have now endeavoured to clear up the difficulties in which the classic games of skill have been involved, and to display the several coincidences which connect them together; and especially those leading points, which may have furnished materials for the construction of the game of Chess. Since much of what I have adduced as proof upon this last head may be thought to amount to little more than probabilities, I leave the first question—whether Chess was invented by the *first intention*, or passed through various stages of improvement, to the judgment of the candid and unprejudiced reader.'

As it has been asserted by Julius Pollux that the πλινθιον was a game permitted in the temple of Minerva Skiras at Athens, the author has subjoined an Appendix, in two parts, designed to investigate the nature of the ceremonies in the interesting Athenian festival called the *Skirophoria*, *i. e.* the solstitial feast of the umbrella, or bough: but we must refer the learned reader to the book itself for information on these points; and we readily assure him that he will find his time and attention well repaid by the gratification and amusement which it will afford him. The volume is elegantly printed, and the vignettes and other engravings are executed with taste and judgment.

If some of our readers should remark that the writer has bestowed more attention on this work than the nature of the subject deserved, let them consider whether, if Montaigne's observation be true that Chess is too serious for a game, it may not be admitted as sufficiently serious for critical inquiry and remark. We would, however, advise those who are not at present greatly interested in this game, to read, as a prelude to the entertainment contained in this volume before us, the celebrated poem of Vida intitled "*Sacchia Ludus*;" or an imitation of that composition, under the title of "*Caïssa*," to be found in the fourth volume of the valuable works of the late Sir William Jones.

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ART. V. *Mural Nights*; or, Elements of Civil Knowledge, Vol. I. By Henry Redhead Yorke, Esq. 8vo. pp. 340. 9s. Boards. Clement.

WHATEVER may have been a man's indiscretions or crimes, he makes some atonement to the public, and becomes intitled to some respect, when he devotes the hours of punishment to earnest study, and consecrates his prison-meditations to the improvement both of himself and of his fellow-creatures. The political ground of the present author's confinement in York Castle, in the years 1794 and 1795, it would be as ungenerous in us at this distance of time to discuss, as it would be impertinent in us to decide between him and that part of the community, which is here accused of 'having first flattered and then deserted him':—it will be sufficient for us to observe, that he sustained his imprisonment with philosophical tranquillity, and that, so far from suffering his lamp "at midnight hour," to burn to waste in "the lonely tower," he employed his 'Mural Nights' in projecting, amid other literary pursuits, a sytem of instruction for the young and rising generation. In this seclusion, Mr. Yorke appears to have not unsuccessfully reviewed his own conduct and sentiments, as well as to have examined the general state of civil society: for he very ingenuously confesses, in a pamphlet which will be the subject of the next article, that 'the advantages which he acquired took, about seven years ago, a wrong direction.' This acknowlegement will not be lost on a liberal public; and we esteem it to be our duty to mention such an avowal, in order that former prejudices may no longer operate, nor obstruct the due examination of those important remarks of which we are now required to give an account.

We term the observations of Mr. Yorke *important*, in reference to the nature of the subject, and because they are the production of a strong and well stored mind. The system which he recommends may in some respects be Utopian: but the discussions which are intended to explain and enforce it are so replete with judicious hints, applying to education in general, that parents who wish their children to possess cultivated and virtuous minds;—tutors who are desirous of doing justice to those who are intrusted to their care;—and statesmen who are solicitous for the instruction of the great mass of mankind, under a persuasion that this improvement is essentially connected with the order, peace, and happiness of society;—should not be inattentive to the contents of this volume. Its head-title, *Mural Nights*, no more indicates the nature of the work, than *the Diversions of Purley* explained the object of Mr. Horne Tooke's

Tooke's philological elaborate production. Had it not been for the second title, we should have supposed, on opening the book, that Mr. Yorke's Prison-Thoughts were of a *sombre* cast: but they have no relation to his personal and temporary situation, being designed to embrace the amelioration and happiness of mankind in general. He discusses the importance of early instruction, endeavours to ascertain the best mode of education for the superior and the middling classes of the community, and gives a plan for a public elementary school, and for an under-academy.

After all that has been advanced on the subject of Education, the world is far from being decided respecting the best possible system. Perhaps it is necessary to fix certain fundamental principles, on which a general theory of education may be erected. If the slavish maxim be admitted that men are more docile and submissive in proportion as they are kept in ignorance, and if the mischievous assertion be allowed that philosophy is a stimulus to rebellion against lawful governors, we cannot expect that the rulers of kingdoms will encourage the general diffusion of knowlege: but it is the interest of virtue and humanity to reprobate such fallacious and such odious doctrines.

'We daily observe, (says Mr. Y.,) that in proportion as the sciences make their progress in countries, they transform the inhabitants into new creatures; and by inspiring them with gentler inclinations and manners, and supplying them with better forms of government and more humane laws; they raise them from the obscurity wherein they had languished before, and engage them to throw off their former roughness. Thus, they prove evidently, that the minds of men are very near the same in all parts of the world; that all honorable distinction in regard to them is owing to the sciences; and that according as these are cultivated or neglected, nations rise or fall, emerge out of darkness, or sink again into it; and that their fate in a manner depends upon them.

'The advantages of education and learning are more lasting and extensive than those of arms. The courage of a soldier does little service to his country after his death, the benefit of it being usually confined to one age; whereas, public provisions for society are framed, and the constitution adjusted to the temper and convenience of the people; of the happy effects of which, remote posterity is often sensible. And as the consequences of valor seldom reach beyond the death of him who shewed it, so there are few the better for it, except those for whom a man engages; and they are commonly none but his countrymen. But learning, by inventing and improving the arts and sciences, scatters its favors in a much larger compass; becomes an universal benefactor, and obliges mankind in its most comprehensive latitude of place and time. The successes of learning are naturally of a very innocent tendency, and under good management,

prejudicial to none. The conquests of arts are not like those of arms, gained by slaughter, and attended with ruin and desolation. No; here is nothing routed but ignorance and error; nothing destroyed but obstinate humor and savage disposition. *Emollit mores, nec sinit esse feros.*'

Persuaded of the high consequence of education, Mr. Yorke recommends the commencement of its beneficial effects *in good time:*

'At our entrance into the world, we are helpless and ignorant; and the mind, like blank paper, is capable of receiving any impressions which may be made upon it. This, then, is the point where we ought to begin, nor should we desist until the mind is competent to form its judgments without the direction of the parent or tutor. As education is merely the instrument of facilitating our attainment of this capacity, it should be laid aside as soon as the object is attained.'—

'If, instead of dangerous opinions and delusive enchantments, a child hear nothing but the voice of truth, honesty, and right reason, pointing out to him the errors that prevail in the behaviour and conversations of mankind; and if the rules by which they are to be discerned be laid before him, there is almost a moral certainty that he will escape the dangers of intemperance, and be preserved from the contagion of vice. Youth is the season of curiosity and impetuous desires. It will require, therefore, a skilful and masterly hand to direct the former to proper objects, and the latter to honorable attainments. Nature seems to have given us, during our infancy, an inquisitive spirit and a ductile temper, for the express purpose of facilitating our acquisition of the rudiments of knowledge. We ought, however, to remember, that notwithstanding this favorable disposition, we are not at liberty to use compulsion, threats, or angry expressions, as instruments for the communication of truth. If possible, every acquirement of a child should be a matter of choice; for reason is the enemy of all violence and of all force, and conquers only by gentleness, persuasion, and truth. That species of mental torture, that outrage of all feeling, which would stretch and weary the active genius of infancy, cannot be too much reprobated and discountenanced. The talents with which infancy is endowed, are to be treated and cultivated in a different manner. Every temptation should be held out to the child, that he may demand information voluntarily. It should be disguised under the most agreeable forms and names, and should steal unobserved into his mind by every avenue. But, let it not be imagined, that I would insinuate by the above observation that truth itself should be disguised. It is the *mode* only of displaying it, not the truth that is here alluded to. This divine progeny of heaven, ought to be contemplated in every light and in every situation, that, like the sun in a cloudless heaven, it may illumine and refresh every object which it pierces with its rays.'

Mr. Yorke's great object is to abridge the means employed for the acquisition of knowlege. He reprobates the notion that, in order to avoid losing time, we must hasten to 'cram

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the memory' in any mode whatever; and he advises the tutor to be solicitous in causing *ideas* to accompany *words*. This certainly ought to be a consideration with every preceptor: but, since memory comes much sooner into exercise than judgment or the power of discrimination, may it not be stored with effect under wise management, and the difficulties of learning be surmounted by its being well supplied with words? Reasons cannot be given to a child on every occasion; and if, like old Macklin, he should ask why *Io sono* meant *I am*, and were not to proceed till his master could give him a satisfactory explanation, we apprehend that his progress in language would be very soon interrupted.

Since to Englishmen, and especially to those in the middling classes of the community, the study of their own language is of the greatest importance, Mr. Yorke would direct their chief attention to this point; and though we do not think with him that our language is 'now *highly* polished,' and that by its simplicity it is fitter to exhibit a clear system of Grammar than the Latin *: yet, as it certainly possesses great beauty, force, and elegance, many advantages may be obtained by making it a more prominent feature of education.

'The Latin and Greek languages, considered as models of taste and fine writing, are useful to form the style, and sharpen the wit of men But a coryphæus in ancient learning is but a mere pedant, if he be ignorant of the nature, beauties, and power of his mother-tongue. His learning, which would otherwise be an useful ornament to his more practical knowledge, cannot but impede his progress in the world. An Englishman, destined to reside in his native country, is to think, write, and to speak in English, not in Latin or Greek; and the greatest cause that has hitherto obstructed the refinement of English literature is, the total neglect of our own language, during our education. We cannot therefore be surprized when we find scholars express themselves aukwardly in it, or when we discover that the French, Italian, Latin, and Greek tongues, are better understood (because they are more attended to) than our own. Our acquaintance with the authors of antiquity should have taught us better plans. For, according to the undoubted testimonies of Quintilian and Cicero, the greatest pains were taken to instruct the Roman youth in the Latin tongue, before they were taught the Greek, which was as foreign to them as French, Latin, or Greek are to the English. Were the Roman Republic in existence, and were it judged proper that its youth should be conversant in the language of our country, we should find that it would not be attempted until they had been thoroughly acquainted with the general principles of Latin. The same observation will apply to us. Let the divine languages of

* How could Mr. Y. advance this assertion, when he tells us that we have in our language no *future tense*?

antiquity be cultivated as a part of education, but let them not absorb the whole; let them assist the style, but never exclude the bold simple energy of the British language. To animate, to rouze, to move, to inform the hearts and minds of men is, at this time, the peculiar province of our mother tongue. All our reflections and passions are now summoned into action, and if the Great hold conversation with the immortals only of Greece and Rome, they will soon perceive themselves outdone in the race of eloquence, by the lofty and manly style of the unlearned part of the community. Great concussions of empires frequently produce an ardor of sentiment, and a peculiar strength of language. The day is past, when a citation from Aristotle, Plato, or even Tully, would silence the voice of contending factions. MAN AND FOR EVER, is the motto displayed on the banner of humanity, which is unfurled at the close of the eighteenth century, and the examples of antiquity, however eloquent, are not permitted to be quoted in derogation of the great principles of liberty and justice. The language in which Milton, Shakspeare, and Locke wrote, was the language our forefathers used, when they conquered their liberties, and wrested the iron sceptre from the hands of tyrants. It is in this language we should struggle to maintain them; and such a struggle, if necessary, the circumstances of the times, and the genius of the age, will stamp with glory, and with success.'

The author's general remarks on the English tongue, and on the formation of its grammar, deserve consideration, though our limited space will not allow us minutely to notice them. Since the structure of our language and of the Latin is so extremely different, he expresses his surprize at seeing so much of the distribution and technical terms of the Latin grammar retained in our own. There is undoubtedly a striking dissimilarity between the genius of the Latin and that of the English; so much, that the term which we have borrowed from the former in one instance, *preposition*, is reversed in its new application, and the words which we call *prepositions* are in fact *postpositions*; for we do not say, *præponere*, to *before* place, but to place *before*, &c. At the revival of letters, the Latin was the language of the learned; and therefore it is not surprizing that it should have been made the basis of others, and that the modern languages should be placed on it as on the bed of Procrustes. As the Latin has its tenses of verbs and the cases of nouns marked by differences of termination, it is perhaps better adapted to give an idea of grammar than our own language, and the study of it even in this view cannot be unprofitable: but the student ought to be reminded of their essential difference, which appears in nothing so much as in the structure of the verbs:

'The French and Italian languages, (says Mr. Yorke,) being children of the Latin, have both of them the remains of a conjugation;

tion; and all those tenses of the active voice, which cannot be expressed by the possessive verb joined to the passive participle, as well as many of those which can, are, in those languages, marked by varying the termination of the principal verb. But almost all those other tenses are in the English eked out by other auxiliary verbs, so that there is in this language *scarce** even the remains of a conjugation. *I love, I loved, loving,* are all the varieties of termination which the greater part of English verbs admit *of*. All the different modifications of meaning, which cannot be expressed by any of those three terminations, must be made out by different auxiliary verbs joined to some one or other of them. Two auxiliary verbs supply all the deficiencies of the French and Italian conjugations; it requires more than half a dozen to supply those of the English, which, besides the substantive and possessive verbs, make use of *do, did; will, would; shall, should; can, could; may, might.*'

Notwithstanding the frequent discussions between the advocates for a *public* and the friends of a *private* Education, the question of preference remains yet undecided. The author before us takes a middle course, and much solid sense is displayed in his observations:

'It appears to be the safer method to derive advantage from both means of instruction, without incurring the dangers which attend on either of them, (for there are dangers attendant on a private education also,) by consolidating them into one. In Holland and Swisserland, it has been practised with success, and boys resort during several hours of the day to public schools and colleges, but always take their meals and sleep at home. The education of boys at distant colleges, of young ladies in distant boarding schools, seems, in the higher ranks of life, to have hurt most essentially the domestic morals, and consequently the domestic happiness both of France and England. Do you wish to educate your children to be dutiful to their parents; to be kind and affectionate to their brothers and sisters: put them under the necessity of being dutiful children, of being kind and affectionate brothers and sisters: educate them in your own house. From their parents' house they may, with propriety and advantage, go out every day to attend public schools: but let their dwelling be always at home. Respect for you must always prove a very useful restraint upon their conduct, and respect for them may frequently impose no useless restraint upon your own. Surely no acquirement, which can possibly be derived from what is called a public education, can make any sort of compensation for what is almost certainly and necessarily lost by it. Domestic education is the institution of nature; public education the contrivance of man. It is surely unnecessary to say which is likely to be the wisest.'

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* Criticizing on the English language, Mr. Yorke ought not to be so incorrect as to use the adjective *scarce* for the adverb *scarcely*: nor is this a solitary instance of his inattention to grammatical purity and to elegance of style.

In Mr. Yorke's plan of a public Elementary School, and of an Under-Academy, he proposes that,

'According to the population of the county, let there be in every town a public school, divided into two large rooms; one to be called the Lower, and the other to be called the Upper Academy. Over each academy, let there be one Head-Master, whose office should consist in lectures and examinations. Let proper assistants be provided according to the ratio of one to twenty scholars; or, if there be above twelve scholars, then one assistant; if above thirty, and under forty, two; and so on in proportion. Their business should be confined to the conduct of the mechanical part of the school, such as the distribution of the separate portions of study, attention to the rehearsals of the boys, and expositions of the difficulties that may impede their progress.'

We have not room for minutely detailing the particulars of this plan: but, as we have before suggested, it contains many hints of which preceptors should avail themselves. Mr. Yorke is judiciously desirous of saving boys the drudgery of learning words unaccompanied by ideas; and he would have them lectured orally, and not passed from one class to another without a public examination of their proficiency.

Material and extensive consequences, relative to the morality and happiness of the human species, are supposed to result from the adoption of a wise scheme of National Education; and Mr. Yorke is so thoroughly convinced of this fact, that he makes no attempt to exonerate himself from the imputation of enthusiasm in contemplating it:

'I am sensible, (says he, in concluding this volume,) that good men may entertain too sanguine views of the moral improvement of the world, and that their speculations may lead them to magnify the effects of education. Let it be so. The simplicity of their plans corresponds with the innocence of their motives; and if it be enthusiasm, I am certain, that it is an enthusiasm of an honest tendency, in which nothing is intended unfavorable to the welfare of mankind. Its route is not marked by scenes of violence and human slaughter, but it leaves the benefits it proposes to confer, to the slow but progressive operations of human reason. And in the full confidence that, conformably to the order of nature, man was destined to improve and to be happy, I look forward with no small degree of exultation to the arrival of that epoch, when the claims of humanity shall be inviolably respected, and when PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, superseding the logic of bayonets, shall be universally considered as the most effectual method to render a nation powerful and a people happy.'

There is something extremely pleasing in a prophetic vision of this nature; and though the contending interests, passions, and vices of the human race may prevent it from ever being completely realized, there is no doubt that the present condition of man,

man, even in the best existing state of society, is capable of considerable improvement; nor let it be forgotten that, since knowlege is both virtue and power, the means of most effectually diffusing it should be an object of the most sedulous inquiry in every wise nation.

At the end of this volume, we are told that a second was ready for the press: but we have not yet heard of its appearance.

Mo-y.

Art. VI. *A View of a Course of Lectures, to be commenced on Monday, May* 11, 1801, *on the State of Society, at the Opening of the Nineteenth Century;* containing Inquiries into the Constitutions, Laws, and Manners, of the principal States of Europe. By Henry Redhead Yorke, of the Inner Temple, Student at Law. 8vo. 1s. Clement.

We know not what success Mr. Yorke experienced in delivering his lectures: but to his endowments for such an undertaking, his *Mural Nights* (of which we have just given an account,) and this Prospectus bear ample testimony. The personal motives in which the undertaking originated are thus explained:

'Thirteen years have now elapsed, since I became a student of the Inner Temple, during which time, it is well known, that my life has been chequered by strange vicissitudes of fortune. My education, course of reading, and habits of reflection were, during the greater part of this long period, directed to the attainment of such qualifications as might be auxiliary, or immediately necessary, to the favorite profession I had chosen. It never appeared to me, that the learning of an advocate should be confined within the narrowed routine of practice; but that an enlightened conception of the sources and progress of the jurisprudence of his own, compared with that of other countries, was an attribute of his character, without which, he might be a gainful retailer of precedents, but could have no pretensions to the name of a liberal practitioner. Satisfied with the justice of this proposition, I endeavoured by foreign travel to facilitate my inquiries, and to procure such lights as might one day or other prove advantageous to me in my forensic pursuits. Having also been placed in situations abroad, where I could obtain, without much difficulty, some insight into the machinery of government, I was enabled to acquire an experience, which I apprehend is not easily gained from the perusal of books. That these advantages about seven years ago took a wrong direction I am willing to admit; they however induced more extensive researches, than I might otherwise have prescribed for myself in the line of my profession. Since which, several years of absolute seclusion from the world have gone by, in which these subjects were examined with more temper and sobriety; and a recent opportunity of revisiting the Continent afforded fresh materials for reflection.

tion. These circumstances, superadded to the considerations which have been alleged above, will sufficiently explain the *causes* of my having paid so much attention to the subject.

'On the return of public tranquillity, when the speculative opinions of individuals no longer menaced the state with civil convulsions, I did hope, and I had a right to hope, that the old good-nature of the country (to use a beautiful expression of Lord Clarendon) would have returned with it; that, instead of mutual irritation, all orders of men would have seen the folly of keeping alive the embers of past dissensions, and have conspired together to promote the common welfare of our country. I cannot bring myself to believe it possible for any well-wisher of his country to think differently from me on this point. There are those, however, who entertain an opposite judgment from mine respecting the *means* by which such ends are to be accomplished. It is necessary I should state, as a leading motive for the delivery of these Lectures, that it has been thought proper by those, who are entrusted with the power, to deny me for the present, and for an indefinite period, the privilege of exercising that profession to which, I think, I have some just claims. During the suspense, therefore, which may follow that determination, or before I ultimately embark in another branch of the profession to which, in the event of a positive rejection, I must be compelled to resort for the support of my family; and in order that expensive years of preparation may not be altogether thrown away, I have been incited and encouraged by those whose rank and character would give a sanction to any undertaking, to make public the fruits of those labours, in which I engaged under expectations that may never be realized.'

It belongs not to our court to give judgment on the circumstance to which Mr. Yorke alludes, and we presume not to decide how far it may be right to exclude him from practising as a Barrister: but on his literary character we are required, in the line of our duty, to offer an opinion; and this sentiment must be in his favour. He has in this Prospectus opened a most interesting field of inquiry; and he has prefaced it with observations which evince deep reflection, and nice discrimination. A comparative view of the several States of Europe, in which are explained their different genius and character respecting morals, governments, and manners, would form a very amusing and instructive publication; and for such a work this author appears to be well qualified.

Our readers may judge from the following extracts:

'In the course of my lectures, I shall often have occasion to bear ample testimony to the lustre of our constitution, and to display, in a conspicuous light, its comparative superiority over the brightest models of national policy. But in reviewing the political systems of other countries, let us never be forgetful that *they* also have their peculiar advantages, which, though we may disregard them, are essentially connected with their existence and felicity; let us remember,

ber, that we are indebted to some of them for many happy discoveries in science, and for many useful improvements in the discipline of war, and the milder arts of peace. To their public lawyers and historians, to their able statesmen and civilians, to their theologians and philosophers, *we* are obliged for the investigation of matters most important to the interests of mankind. It was in Germany, that the power of reason effectually broke the fetters in which the sordid and jealous ambition of superstitious knaves had riveted, for centuries, the human intellect. It was in Germany, amidst the contentions and struggles incidental to so great a revolution, that the generous doctrines of public freedom flowed from the pen of Althusius; and that toleration, supported by prowess, wrenched from the hand of bigotry the ensanguined dagger of persecution. Lastly, it was in the woods of Germany, that the most recondite antiquaries of Britain have penetrated, in order to explore the origin of that beautiful system of government, which their posterity now enjoy.'

Deeming it absolutely requisite to review the past, before he takes notices of the great and momentous events with which the new century opens, Mr. Yorke thus glances at the distinguishing features of the five which preceded it:

'Since the conquest of Constantinople by the Turks, every century has been fertile in great and unexampled changes. To that event is ascribed the revival of letters among the Western nations. The next century beheld the rapid change in the religion and the political system of a considerable part of Europe. The new dogmas of the reformers supported on one side, and opposed on the other, with all the zeal which the interests of religion, well or ill understood, are apt to inspire, impelled alike their partizans and adversaries to extend their intellectual pursuits. Quickened by this great motive, emulation enlarged the sphere of human knowledge; and its light, long concealed beneath the clouds of error and confusion, blazed forth even on subjects which seemed most foreign from those disputes. In the seventeenth century, a new system of philosophy was founded, which, though persecuted at first with great acrimony, was afterwards embraced with superstitious avidity, and at length reduced to those principles only, which were just and true. Lastly, the eighteenth century has witnessed revolutions in government, laws, manners, religion, and states, of which there is no example in the annals of the human race.'

In ascribing the revival of letters in the West to the conquest of Constantinople by the Turks, writers assign a cause which in itself is very inadequate to the effect. It is not probable that letters would have been much cultivated, and real knowlege diffused, had it not been for the *invention of printing*. As copies of books could not be multiplied to any very considerable degree by mere transcription, the great mass of every people must have been enveloped in ignorance; and in that state they probably would have remained, had not this im-

portant art been devised. The conquest of Constantinople would then have been no more propitious to the literature of Europe in general, than it has been to that of Constantinople itself; which, not having profited by the discovery, still continues a magnificent monument of barbarism.

Most pathetically does the present writer lament the defects of history; and he strenuously endeavours to counteract those false and dazzling lights, by which the judgment of mankind is so commonly led astray in the perusal of historical records:

'Unfortunately, the exposition of the order of social life and civil policy cannot be circumstantially extracted from the general relations of history. Inquiries of this sort are seldom attended to by historians. They prefer what is brilliant to what is useful, and dwell with raptures on the conduct of generals, the valour of armies, and the consequences of victory and defeat. And while they describe and embellish the politics of princes and the fortunes of nations, the splendid qualities of eminent men, and the lustre of heroic actions, they neglect all disquisitions into laws and manners, as unworthy of remark, or incapable of ornament. Antiquaries have displayed much critical and laborious investigation, but the spirit of customs and of laws has also escaped *their* penetration. They often throw together their materials without arrangement, they are often unable to reason from them, and, forgetting that the human mind advances progressively, they ascribe to rude ages the ideas and sentiments of their own times. These are all impediments in the way of political examination, and they have, besides, the fatal tendency of obliterating for a time our sense of moral duty and the true interests of nations. Neither are these descriptions the most entertaining portions of historical narration. Scenes of carnage, though dressed in the pomp of words, may dazzle the eyes for a while, but they cannot ultimately fix the attention of mankind. Doth not the ingenious scholar, who has enlarged and enlightened the faculties of the human mind; the inventive artist, who has increased the comforts and conveniencies of human life; the adventurous merchant or mariner, who has discovered unknown countries, and opened new sources of trade and wealth; deserve a place in the annals of his country, and in the grateful remembrance of posterity; equally with the good Prince, the wise Politician, or the victorious General? Can we form just ideas of the characters and circumstances of our ancestors, by viewing them only in the flames of civil and religious discord, or in the fields of blood and slaughter; without ever attending to their conduct and condition, in the more permanent and peaceful scenes of social life? Have we no curiosity to know, at what time, by what degrees, and by whose means, mankind have been enriched with the treasures of learning, political wisdom, arts and commerce? It is impossible. Such curiosity is natural, laudable, and useful; and it is hoped, that this attempt to gratify it, will be received by the public with some degree of favour.'

In the last place, Mr. Yorke purposes to consider *Man as he is*, and to avoid speculative topics and abstract reasoning.—

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The work may be regarded as a declaration of the author's present political sentiments, and as proving that he entertains none which are inimical to the British Constitution. **Mo-y.**

ART. VII. *The History of Guildford*, the County-Town of Surrey. Containing its antient and present State, Civil and Ecclesiastical; collected from public Records, and other Authorities. With some Account of the Country three Miles round. 8vo. pp. 340. 12s. 6d. Boards. Longman, &c. 1801.

THE compilers of topographical publications have usually endeavoured to compensate by their splendor for their general dullness: but the anonymous history before us has not this recommendation. We have here no pleasing engravings, either of antient or modern edifices, to make us amends for a long list of the *Mayors of Guildford*, continued through many pages, or other similar particulars, which must be as dull reading to the major part of his Majesty's loving subjects, as an auctioneer's catalogue of a past sale.

Guildford is not universally allowed to be the sole county-town of Surrey, for we understand that Kingston, of which the charter is more antient, claims at least a *participation* of this honour: but it is admitted by all travellers to be the most beautifully situated. Of the town, some picturesque views have at different times been taken; and the castle, St. Katharine's Chapel, with other objects in its vicinity, have also invited the pencil of artists: but, so far from having embellishments of this kind, the present work does not contain even a plan of the town, and we have only a copper-plate of such uninteresting objects as tradesmen's tokens.

The volume opens with a translated copy of 'the charter granted to the corporation of Guildford, by King Edward III., with the confirmation and renewal thereof by the Kings Richard II. and Henry VII.;' after which we enter on its history and description, whence we shall transcribe the most material part:

'Guildford (otherwise Guldeford, Guilford, Guildeford, or Gegldford,) is the county-town of Surrey; is neat, large, * and well-built, twenty-nine miles to the south-west of London; it con-

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'* It had been far greater than now it is, when the palace of our English kings was therein set. SPEED.

'This town was held by king William I. in demesne; and we learn from *Domesdei*, that there were 75 *hagæ*, or houses, inhabited by 175 men able to bear arms, which shews it to have been at that time a place of considerable repute.

'Salmon observes, that "the trade of inns for travellers, and shops to furnish the country with its fairs and market, must have made it then populous as the same do now, besides the clothing business".'

sists of good house, and is well-inhabited, having a market of great resort, which is kept weekly on Saturdays, accounted as good as any in England for wheat, barley, and oats, and plentifully furnished with almost all other necessaries. There are also held two fairs, viz. on May 4, and November 22, for horses, cattle, sheep, and hogs.

'Guildford is a corporation by prescription, had its first and second charters from Henry III. A. D. 1256, and others from Edward III., Richard II., and Henry VI. and VII., and renewed and confirmed in the twenty-fifth year of Q. Elizabeth.

'The town is governed by a mayor, recorder, seven magistrates, and persons who have served the office of bailiff, by the name of approved men of Guildeford; who assemble and hold a court in their guildhall every three weeks, and are vested with power at their general sessions of judging criminals to transportation. By a grant of K. James I., the mayor, and recorder, and two of the magistrates, are annually chosen justices of the peace in and for the said corporation, and formerly the liberties of Stoke above bar; and the mayor continues in his commission the year after his mayoralty expires. By the second character of Henry III., in 1256, the county-court and assizes for Surrey are to be held here at all times for ever. The right hon. George lord Onslow and Cranley is lord lieutenant of the county, and high-steward of the borough; the right hon. William lord Grantley standing council, commonly called recorder.

'The large and rich mace was presented to the mayor and approved men of Guldeford, by the right honourable Henry Howard of Norfolk, 1663, the then high-steward, hy the hands of Sir Richard Onslow, knight, but one of the then burgesses.

'The smaller mace, two feet and a half in length silver gilt, has the arms of England and France incorporated, given by the gold chain, thus called, "A fayre chayne of gold, double linked, with a medall of massey gold; whereon his maiesties armes are curiously engraven." And on the reverse, the armes of Arthur Onslow esq. of West Clandon in the county of Surrey, high-steward, who gave it to the mayor and approved men of Guldeford, 3d March, 1673.

'The mayor's staff, ebony, with a silver top, the town arms engraven thereon, and this inscription round: "FAYRE GOD. DOE JUSTICE. LOVE THY BRETHER." Given by Q. Elizabeth.

'There are two seals in use by the town, the greater and the lesser. The greater seal, which is the most modern of the two, is usually affixed to instruments and acts of a superior kind, and the inscription on it round the town arms is—SIGILLUM BURGI ET VILLE DE GVLDEFORD. The lesser, and yet most ancient, is adapted to inferior uses, as writs, certificates, powers, &c. of a more temporary essence or less importance. Round the arms of the town is inscribed —SIGILLVM BVRGI ET VILE DE GVLDFORD.

'The TOWN PLATE. A bason and ewer, silver gilt, given by bishop Parkhurst. A silver stoup, and two silver cups, given by John Austen, 1620. A stoup gilt, given by Thomas Baker, 1584. This stoup new made 1602.

'There

'There are two serjeants at mace, chosen annually. Also a beadle or cryer. Anno 11 Jac. I., "One parcel of meade lying and beinge in the common-meade called Mill-meade in Stok next Guldeford, given to the seriantes of Guldeford, and their successors, by William Hamond, sometymes of Guldeford aforesaid, esq., deceased: To enjoy the said profite and dutyes formerly allowed them jointly and proportionablie together."

'The situation of Guildford is, perhaps, the most singular and romantic of any town in England; it is seated in a most healthful air, on the sides of two chalk hills sloping down quick to the river, which runs in a narrow channel between them. The declivity on which the town stands, (says Mr. Hanway,) joined to the view of the opposite hills, gives it an air of grandeur, whilst the river, whose streams water the lower part of the town, adds to the beauty as well as the advantage of the situation.

'The river is called the Wey, or Wye, one branch of which rises near Alton Church, Hants, the other at Frensham great pond *, and falls into the Thames at Oatlands. It was made navigable from this town to the Thames at Weybridge in the year 1650, which makes it a place of much trade: the great undertaking of which navigation was first begun by Sir Richard Weston of Sutton, who died within three years after, and left it unfinished. The river being made navigable, large quantities of timber †, meal, malt ‡, lime, &c. are conveyed to London by barges of upwards of forty tons burden, which on their return bring coals, and all other heavy articles. The river is well stored with fish, but those chiefly admired are the pikes, eels, and gudgeons.

'The great roads to Arundel and Little-Hampton, Southampton and Winchester, Chichester, Bognor, and Portsmouth, pass through this town. The bridge over the Wye, built of stone, having five arches, was widened with brick, and the centre arch enlarged some years since for barges to pass through. A view of the bridge in its old state was published in the Gentleman's Magazine for Jan. 1754.

'The manufacture of this place was formerly the clothing trade, by which many considerable estates, as well here, as in other parts of England have been raised. It has been upon the decline above 170 years, at which time it chiefly consisted in making blue clothes for the Canary islands.'

Accounts are given of the three parish churches, Trinity, St. Mary's, and St. Nicholas; of the Hospital, and of the Royal Grammar School: to which is subjoined the History of some eminent persons educated in it, of Hammond's *intended* College,

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'* Both these streams unite at the hamlet of Tilford or Tylford near Farnham, which has its name from this circumstance of the streams forming the letter Y.'

'† Not from the neighbourhood of this town only, but even from the woody parts of Sussex and Hampshire, about thirty miles from it.'

'‡ The malt sent from this place is particularly good.'

of

of the Town-Hall, Sessions-House, Goal, Friary, (now Barracks,) the Markets, and Places of Worship besides those of the Establishment. Under this last head, mention is made of a very peculiar and, we believe, *unique* circumstance, viz. the endowment of a Presbyterian Meeting-house by a Clergyman of the Established Church; one of the Rectors of St. Mary's Church having left 40l. per annum to support the Presbyterian meeting and interest in this town.

Among the miscellaneous matters, we meet with Abbreviations from an old book called the *Black Book*, written in the times of Edward III., Richard II., Henry IV., Henry V., Henry VI., Edward IV., Henry VII., in which mention is made of "bull baytinge as a thing worn out of use and not fit to be revived." If our unpolished ancestors held this opinion, what shall we say of a British House of Commons, which, at the commencement of the nineteenth century, could sanction and encourage this barbarous sport—fit only for *Savages?*

Mo-y.

ART. VIII. *The Poems of* George Huddesford, M. A., *late Fellow of New College, Oxford.* Including *Salmagundi, Topsy-Turvy, Bubble and Squeak,* and *Crambe Repetita.* With Corrections, and Original Additions. 8vo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Wright. 1801.

To the principal poems comprehended in this new and elegant edition, due attention at their first publication was paid, in several of our volumes since the commencement of our *New Series*; and we with pleasure hailed the appearance of this sportive muse,—then new to the world. In later vols. of our Review, we offered the just tribute of applause to the successive productions of the same witty and humourous writer, as mentioned in the title-page of the present re-publication.

With respect to the smaller poems by which this miscellany is enriched, Mr. H. himself thus speaks of them, in his prefatory advertisement:

'The shorter Compositions contained in the First Volume, are interspersed with the productions of abler pens than his own: these, having been almost all of them given to the public in former editions of his SALMAGUNDI, (the favourable reception of which he is sensible that they have essentially promoted,) he has here re-edited them. They will be found, in the Table of Contents, to be distinguished with asterisms, and attributed to their proper owners.'

This acknowlegement is handsome; and it was due to the merit of the performances, particularly to the sweetly flowing lines of S. T. Esq.

We

We observe that considerable *additions* are now made to the exquisite poem intitled *Salmagundi*; among which we could not but note a very droll *transformation* of the story of Nebuchadnezzar and his fiery furnace,—with his 'three Hebrew Salamanders,' which could not be burnt. In this burlesque exhibition of the majesty of Babylon, we are indebted to the playful poet for a hearty laugh:—but we must refer to the volume.

We shall now give a specimen or two of a different kind from the Poet's other *novelties*, here presented to his well entertained readers;—and, first, let us have

'A Song.

'Tho' Fortune may boast at her shrine
That the world's adoration is paid,
No idol shall she be of mine:
No devotion I owe the blind jade:
Yet rich in affection I live,
For tell me what boon so divine
Has a world of luxuriance to give
As one smile, my dear Mary, of thine?

'The glitt'ring distinctions of state
May the envy of sycophants move;
But who would forego, to be great,
Independence, contentment, and love?
Gems and ore do not fall to my share:
But what gem can such transport impart
As one glance of thy kindness, my Fair!
What mine's half so rich as thy heart?

'With Fate let them quarrel that choose,
Chagrin shall ne'er furrow my brow,
To the pray'r of thy swain let the Muse,
Dear Maid, be propitious as Thou!
Then a truce with thy counsels, old Care,
Not a sigh at thy bidding I'll breathe:
For, though sombre the garb that I wear,
Yet light is my heart underneath.'

Bravo!—Another song, from the performance at the '*Wickhamical Anniversary*:

'WILLIAM OF WICKHAM, A SONG,

'FOR THE WICKHAMICAL ANNIVERSARY, HELD AT THE CROWN AND ANCHOR TAVERN.

'I sing not your heroes of ancient romance:
Capadocian George, or Saint Dennis of France;
No chronicler I am
Of Troy and King Priam,
And those crafty old Greeks who to fritters did fry 'em:
But your voices, brave boys, one and all I bespeak 'em,
In due celebration of WILLIAM of WICKHAM.

'CHORUS.'

' CHORUS.

Let WICKHAM'S *brave boys, at the Crown and the Anchor,*
The flask never quit 'till clean out they have drank her;
And united maintain, whether sober or mellow,
That old BILLY WICKHAM *was a very fine fellow.*

' Hear the Lover: you'll learn, from his tragical stories
Of hard-hearted Phœbe, Corinna, and Chloris,
For some sempstress or starcher,
That rascally archer,
Call'd Cupid, has made him as mad as a March hare:
But at WICKHAM's brave boys should he brandish his dart,
We'll drown the blind rogue in a Winchester quart.

' CHORUS.

For WICKHAM'S *brave boys,* &c.

' Let the Soldier, who prates about storming the trenches
Of fortified towns, and of fair-visag'd wenches,
My numbers give heed to,
And, drinking as we do,
Shut up in its scabbard his martial toledo:
For we too shed blood, yet all danger escape,
Since the blood that we shed is the blood of the grape.

' CHORUS.

Let WICKHAM'S *brave boys,* &c.

' Let Lawyers, accustom'd to quarrel and brawl,
Play the devil as usual in Westminster Hall,
Reputations bespatter,
Yet thrive and grow fatter,
While they dash wrong and right up as cookmaids do batter:
Here good fellowship reigns and, what's stranger by far,
No mischief ensues from a call to the Bar.

' CHORUS.

Let WICKHAM'S *brave boys,* &c.

' Th' Empiric profound, who in heathenish Latin
Such potions prescribes as might poison old Satan,
With blister and bolus
And draught would cajole us,
'Till snug under ground he has clapt in a hole us:
But the wise sons of WICKHAM his regimen slight,
They swallow no draughts but of red wine and white.

' CHORUS.

Let WICKHAM'S *brave boys,* &c.

' Let Whig Rhetoricians our rulers defame,
And hungry Sedition's republican flame
Foment, and throw chips on,
Independance their lips on,
While they incense a mob, and exist by Subscription:

Here

Here of Liberty's Tree if for scions they search,
They'll instead catch a tartar,—Wickhamical Birch.

' CHORUS.

Let WICKHAM'S *brave boys*, &c.

' Ye Poetical tribe, on Parnassus who forage,
Who prate of Jove's nectar and Helicon-porridge,
Yet, for beef-steaks and brandy,
Set each Jack-a-dandy
On a level with Frederick, or Prince Ferdinandy!
What's the sword of King Arthur, or Admiral Hosier,
To WILLIAM of WICKHAM and his jolly old Crosier!

' CHORUS.

Let WICKHAM'S *brave boys, at the Crown and the Anchor,*
The flask never quit 'till clean out they have drank her;
And united maintain, whether sober or mellow,
That old BILLY WICKHAM *was a very fine fellow.*'

To the lovers of '*rural felicity*' we recommend the following

' SONNET.

' Around my porch and lowly casement spread
The myrtle sear, and gadding vine,
With fragrant sweetbriar loves to intertwine;
And in my garden 's box-encircled bed
The pansie pied, the musk-rose, white and red,
The pink and tulip, and honied woodbine,
Fling odours round; the flaunting eglantine
Decks my trim fence, 'neath which, by Silence led,
The Wren hath wisely fram'd her mossy cell;
And, far from noise in courtly land so rife,
Nestles her young to rest and warbles well:
Here in this safe retreat and peaceful glen
I pass my sober moments, far from men,
Nor wishing death too soon, nor asking life'

We shall conclude our extracts with a *touch* of *old Elwes*:

' IMITATION FROM THE GREEK.

Μυν Ασκληπιαδης ὁ Φιλαργυρος, κ. τ. λ. *Anthol.*

' Old Elwes once espied a Mouse
In the *Dry Corner* of his house: *

And,

' * While his relation, the late Colonel Tims, was visiting Mr. Elwes at his house at Marcham, in Berkshire, a heavy shower falling in the night, he found the rain dropping through the ceiling upon his bed; on which he immediately rose and moved the bed from its place; he had, however, scarcely got into it again ere he found the same inconvenience recur, and oblige him to have recourse a second time to the same experiment, which still proved ineffectual. At length, after having pushed his bed quite round the room, he gained a corner where the ceiling was better secured, and there he

And, though he had no cause to fear,
" Curse you!" quoth he, " what do you here?"
The Mouse indignant rais'd his head,
And thus, but without passion, said:
" No mouse alive would hither come
That had on earth another home.
'Tis not the risk we run, not that;
You ha'n't the heart to keep a cat.
Then traps, we know, are never set;
And why? because you grudge the bait.
We 're in security, I grant,
But, safe from danger, die for want:
Tho' I should lodge here, why fear you?
When do YOU roast, or bake, or brew?
The mouse that trusted to your shelf
Would soon grow leaner than Yourself:
For never a morsel did I see
To put to the test my honesty.
But I disdain, Sir, to intrude
After your speech so gross and rude;
And think not that I make pretence;
Upon my honour I'll go hence:
For in the rest of all your house
There's no fit lodging for a MOUSE."

We will not say as some have said, that wit and humour *are of no party*, but that they are of *all parties*; and therefore those readers, whose political opinions may not be in unison with the sentiments of Mr. H., should nevertheless peruse his verses with pleasure, and applaud their merit with sincerity. G.

G. 2.

ART. IX. Mr. Whiter's *Etymologicon Magnum*; or Universal Etymological Dictionary.

[*Article concluded from p.* 134.]

OUR strictures on the preliminary positions of Mr. Whiter have carried us so much into detail, that we can spare but little room for the examination of the theory itself, and of the evidence which is brought to substantiate it:—a few general remarks, however, we shall now endeavour to subjoin.

In the first place, we must observe that the theory is imperfect and unsatisfactory.—We are told, in the outset, that the same consonants always express the same elementary

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slept till morning. When he encountered his host at breakfast, he told him what had happened.—" Aye, aye!" said the old gentleman, seriously, " I don't mind it myself; but to those who do, that is a *nice Corner*, in the rain."—See the Life of John Elwes, Esq. page 13.'—See also M. Rev. vol. i. *N. S.* p. 447.

meaning;

meaning; and we never advance beyond this general assertion. The author will not allow himself, even in the way of hypothesis or conjecture, to insinuate any thing like a reason in support of it, nor to give us the least assistance in guessing *how* it should have come to be true. He repeatedly reminds us that it is his business to prove a fact, and not to account for it; and he seems to take no little merit for confining himself thus scrupulously. Now it appears to us that, in all cases in which the evidence is in any degree defective or suspicious, it is difficult to acquiesce in it without some previous conception of its probability: we must be able to imagine *how* a thing could have happened, before we can easily be persuaded of its existence; and in most cases we can be but little moved with a proof that does not either refer to some theory, or suggest it: but Mr. W. has very cautiously and studiously declined to give any opinion respecting the causes of that indelible significancy of the consonants, the belief of which it is his object to establish. Whether he concieves that there is a natural and intrinsic aptitude in these combinations to express the things which they are found so universally to signify, or whether this concurrence of meaning must be referred to their common origin in some primitive and conventional language from which all the others have been derived, it is impossible to conjecture from any positions that appear in this volume.—The treatises of Des Brosses and Gebelin are in this respect much more complete and satisfactory.—By the notion of an instinctive imitation and an original significancy in certain sounds, they have both formed a theory that is entire and legitimate, that comprehends the whole of the facts which were meant to be brought under it, and accounts for them completely as soon as it is proved and established. If we be once satisfied that their doctrine is just and that their proofs are irresistible, we can have no doubt concerning the origin and progress of language, or the causes of those resemblances and contrarieties by which the words of it are connected.—With Mr. W. the case is remarkably different. His doctrines are not carried far enough to resolve any of the great difficulties of the subject: the most enlightened and most implicit of his followers can know and believe little more than the ignorant remainder of mankind: he perceives, to a greater extent, that coincidence of sound and meaning which is obvious in some degree to the slightest observation, and he believes that it belongs exclusively to the consonant elements of language: but as to the causes of its existence he has no faith and no revelation: he is left, like the rest of the world, to his fancies and conjectures, and has most of the

doubts and difficulties to encounter that afflicted him before his conversion.

There is, however, more than mere deficiency in this part of the performance:—though Mr. W. affects to renounce theory, yet his doctrine most evidently implies it, and requires us to adopt certain general positions that will not easily be admitted as self-evident. We cannot possibly believe that all consonant combinations have the same elementary meaning, except on the one or the other of these suppositions; 1st, that the element was of itself and intrinsically fitted by nature to express that meaning and no other; or 2d, that it was the conventional sign of some primitive object, or idea, from which all the rest of the words that contained it inherited their significancy. Without seeking to enlarge on the difficulties and objections to which both these suppositions are liable, we shall merely observe that there is something in Mr. W.'s own statement of the fact that seems to render them both inadmissible. There are only four or five consonants, it will be remembered, according to this author's doctrine; and, as some of these constitute significant elements in their single and solitary state, the whole number of elements cannot easily amount to more than twenty or thirty. If we really believe, therefore, that the primary significancy of words is derived from those elements, and continues to reside in them, we must also believe that there are no more than twenty or thirty words really distinct from each other in the whole compass of language; and that the savages, by whom the rudiments of speech were invented, understood the full force of those prolific radicals, and never applied one to signify what might have been expressed by some modification of another. To us it appears evident that this could never have been the case. As soon as the physical powers of the organ were fully developed, words would be invented arbitrarily that exhausted all its variations. An affinity of meaning would be so far from suggesting any affinity of sound, that it is probable that both of them would be overlooked. The analogies by which our ideas are connected are but seldom perceived by the most reflecting part of mankind; and that resemblance of sound which may be supposed to exist among the letters of the same organ is equally unknown to the vulgar. It requires study and minute attention to detect the relationship of our ideas, or to make us conscious of the affinities of the sounds which we utter:—to the illiterate and unreflecting, these things have really no existence.—It is necessary, however, according to Mr. W.'s theory, to suppose not merely that their existence was perceived at the first origin of language, but

but that language was constructed with a view to them, and most carefully accommodated to all their shades of variation. We think, nevertheless, that it is the very height of extravagance to suppose that those affinities, as they are laid down by Mr. W., were either perceived by the first formers of language, or secretly guided them in the blind work of its formation. —Having invented the word *cup*, for instance, to signify one object, it is impossible for us to imagine that they should have had any scruple or instinctive repugance in applying the word *soap* or *sleep* to signify another which had no sort of connection with it; and still less can we conceive that they saw any affinity between the idea expressed by *cup*, and that which was denoted by *soap* or *sleep*; or that they were guided, in giving a name to these objects, by any unconscious feeling of such an affinity.

If there were any primitive word or idea, from which all the rest could be supposed to germinate, we should conceive it to be the duty of the etymologist to point out that word to his disciples; or at least to indicate some particular idea to which all the others might be consistently referred as their primitive; although, from the lapse of time, it might have happened that the form of the primitive *word* could no longer be traced and ascertained. Mr. Whiter, however, is so far from pointing out any one definite word as the source of significancy to the rest, that he will not even allow some of his radical words to have had any definite meaning. The reader will find him maintaining, in the very outset of his work (p. 3.), that words may have been used without any fixed or precise signification, and may have occasionally expressed a great variety of those hundred meanings which lay folded up in the element. The same word, for instance, may have signified either *hollow* or *high*, a *covering* or a *curve*, because there is a certain affinity among these various significations, and because Mr. W. imagines that they may all be referred back to one common radical. We profess ourselves altogether unable to comprehend this doctrine: we are much more inclined to hold, with the mob of our old grammarians, that all words signified originally something individual and peculiar; and we are convinced that, at any rate, their signification must have been at least more precise at the origin than at any other time, and could not have been limited, though it might have been extended, by the progress of language.

In the second place, we conceive that the excessive latitude and uncertainty of the analogies, by which Mr. W. has endeavoured to prove the derivation of words or their affinity in meaning, would of itself be sufficient to take away all credit

or authority from his system.—By the aid of his cognate consonants, we have seen that he can change almost any *word* into another; by his system of the cognation of ideas, he can establish a relation between any one *meaning* and another; and by the assistance of both, it would be wonderful if he should fail in marshalling up a formidable body of evidence:—but they are pressed forces, and will not be true to his fortunes: they have no right to give testimony in the cause, and will be set aside as soon as they are challenged.

Nothing, indeed, we apprehend, can possibly be imagined more extravagant and improbable than the derivations of meaning on which Mr. W. rests the whole evidence of his system. The element *c. p.*, he says, has in its original the meaning of *containing*, and so would supply the name for all kinds of *inclosures*:—now, one of the first and principal uses of inclosures, he observes, was to form a sleeping place; and thus the name of *sleep* will probably be derived from the same element. Again; all men have agreed in conceiving and describing sleep as something *soft* and *smooth*: but it is one of the qualities of *soap* and *tallow* to possess and impart smoothness and softness; and it is therefore reasonable to think that these substances would derive their name from sleep, and be denoted by the original element that signified *containing*.—We may ask whether there be any two ideas in existence that may not be proved to be twins, if this may be admitted as evidence of consanguinity? The name for *sleep*, it is scarcely necessary to observe, would most probably be invented long before inclosures had either a name or an existence; while the term *soap* is probably of very modern invention.

The general ideas of *desire* and *power*, the name of *man* and of every sort of *dignity* and *baseness*, are all referred to the original idea of *containing*, and connected by a similar genealogy with the parent element *c. p.*; and really it is impossible to go through the different descents with any degree of seriousness or patience. *Containing*, Mr. W. observes, naturally suggests the idea of *plenty* and *riches*; riches are the object of *desire*; and the preservation or acquisition of them is the great purpose of *power!* Again; any thing that contains is apt to be *swelled* out or *heaped* up; and hence the notion of *elevation* is connected with it. *Man* is an elevated being, and therefore takes his name from the element of *containing*. Man, moreover, is a being very wise, witty, wicked, valorous, and fearful; and hence the names of wisdom, vice, courage, and cowardice, are borrowed from the name of man. Sometimes, indeed, they are made the element, and man takes his name from them!—It would have been just as much to the purpose to have said that a wig

or a joint stool is called after the name of man, because he makes them; or that he is called after them, because he is the only animal that makes use of them. He is *not* the only animal that fears or fights, or that is cunning or active.

It is needless to go through such a system minutely; every thing, we perfectly believe, is related to every thing; and *some* connection may be discovered between all the ideas or perceptions of which we are capable:—but for this very reason we consider it to be in a great measure impossible to ascertain the degree or proximity of that relation in any one particular instance, or to determine from which of the thousand connected objects the name of any individual has been derived. A vulture, or a swallow, Mr. W. says, *indubitably* derived their names from the rapacity with which they seize and devour their prey: to us it does not appear that this is a circumstance which would be at all likely to strike a primitive observer as characteristic: the name, we conceive, would more probably be taken from some permanent peculiarity in their external appearance, motions, or fixed habits. Men might have lived among those birds for many generations without ever seeing them seize their food; they would have distinguished them, therefore, it is much more probable, by the length of their wing, by the colour of their plumage, by the form of their beak or tail; or, still more probably, by the sound of their note or scream, by the scenes which they frequented, or the seasons in which they appeared. We mention this instance merely in illustration of the general and insuperable difficulties of such a determination as Mr. W. has here undertaken: in other respects, it is one of the most plausible in the volume.—In such instances, if the author's derivation be not the true one, it must at least be granted to him that the true one is not very apparent. Other suppositions may be more defensible, and it may be more than probable that all our suppositions are erroneous: but it is still possible that he may be in the right, and we may tolerate his belief though we cannot agree in it.—There are many of Mr. W.'s etymologies, however, in which our scepticism is turned into the most confirmed infidelity, in which no doubt mingles with our disbelief, and in which we dissent with confidence, though we may find it difficult to enter our protest with gravity.—*Sleep* (*sopor*, *somnus*, &c.), we have already seen, is derived from *cabin*, because the first hovels would be made as places for sleeping; and *soap* from *sleep*, because they are both connected with an idea of softness. (p. 65.) *Government*, and all its kindred terms, again, are derived from the same *containing* cabin; and this is Mr. W.'s account of their genealogy:—*guberno* carries us at once to *gubernaculum*

and

and *gubernator*, the helm and the pilot of a ship; and there is no doubt that these were so called from the *cabin*, an *inclosed* place of the vessel, where so important a personage would undoubtedly be stationed of old! (p. 110.)

In the same zealous spirit of etymology and system, the author will not allow that *copper* (a vessel for boiling) could possibly have received its name from the metal of which it was made, but affirms that it was so called on account of its *capacity*, because the element *c. p.* signifies to *contain!* (p. 19.) A *broom* (for sweeping), he is equally certain, has no connection with the plant of which it may be constructed, but is derived from some oriental word signifying the *earth* (p. 401.); *egg* is derived from εχειν, *to have*, on account of the proverbial greatness of its *having*, or contents, (p. 180.); and *breeches* from *barracks* or *barricade!* (p. 72.)—The derivatives from the name of man are, if possible, still more fantastical. *Vir* is the same with *fear*, because man is very liable to terror; and it is also the same with *war*, because that is one of the most remarkable of human occupations! *Jeopardy* too signifies nothing but the state or condition of man, because *Gevar* in chaldaic is a name for man, and because man is very apt to be in danger! (p. 352.)

It is easy, then, to estimate at its just value that multitude of instances by which the author has endeavoured to support his theory. By far the greater part of the words which are quoted as identical in composition, and analogous in meaning, will be found to have no resemblance either in sound or in signification: *cabin*, for instance, we apprehend, has no sort of affinity to *sleep*, because both the vowels and the consonants are radically different; and even if they resembled each other entirely in construction, it would be difficult for us to conceive that words so little connected in meaning could possibly have proceeded from one common origin.

If the reader has any curiosity to try with what facility he may connect together the most repugnant senses by means of Mr. W.'s metaphysical system of genealogy, he may make the experiment on any word or any idea that happens to suggest itself: we shall be responsible for the success of the operation, and shall not even require any singular degree of address in the conduct of it.—Let us take the idea of *breaking*, for instance, as a counterpart to the author's element of containing: it will conduct us in its first ramification to the ideas of *force*, *violence*, and *success*: then it will extend itself to the notion of *destruction*, *desolation*, *ruin*, and *misfortune*, in general. By a more peculiar reference to the state of the *object*, it will next come to signify *resistance*, *valor*, *strength*, and afterward *weakness*, *yielding*,

yielding, *defeat*. With a view to the cause and the agent, it will furnish us with the ideas of *anger*, *vengeance*, *oppression*, and connect itself with *the hand* and all *weapons* of offence. It will also, by a succession of easy metaphors, be found at the bottom of all our conceptions of *diminution*, *division*, *multiplication*, &c. besides giving name to all the elements, animals, and objects, that are in the way of breaking or being broken.—This is only one half of its progeny; for, as the *negation* of an idea is, according to Mr. W. (and the etymologists of *lucus*) one of the strongest bonds of affinity to it, the *reverse* of all those *notions* may for that very reason be fairly traced to the same common radical. The names of man and God may be deduced with equal propriety from either of the two branches: either as breakers or preservers, as the sources of multiplication or the causes of holding together, these elevated beings may be conceived and denominated with the same exactness and probability!

When the disciple of the author has arrived thus far in the explication of his theory, and secured a sufficient number of words to exhibit in support of it, he needs not suffer any sort of anxiety concerning their fitness for the service for which they were collected, nor the completeness of the proof which he is by their means to establish. He may take any two or three consonants that he may choose, and, after having made himself full master of the mysteries of their *cognation*, he will be delighted to find that there is no word in any language which they are not able to express, although there should be a letter or two more in some of them than his *element* will easily admit. No uneasiness is necessary on that account: he has only to take no notice of them whatever, and to plead the authority of his master; who, in *more than half* of his examples, has argued on words of this description, and brought forwards, as proofs of the exclusive significancy of his *biliteral* element, combinations of three, four, and five different consonants. By the help of patience and perseverance alone, he may compose a volume as large as the *Etymologicon Magnum*; and if he have the genius and the erudition of Mr. Whiter, he will make ingenious conjectures and discover interesting analogies.—In support of an untenable theory, he will offer many just remarks and profound reflections; and will expend much judgment and acuteness, much zeal, labour, and discrimination, in the pursuit of an imaginary object, and the execution of an impracticable scheme.—Genius and industry have a rank and a value of which it is impossible to deprive them; but they lose their lustre and their currency when they are overstrained or misapplied: disjoined from that utility and success with which they are naturally united, they forfeit their highest claim to

our homage and approbation:—we may admire the artist, but we cannot applaud the performance. If the task were enjoined by necessity, we feel for him compassion and regret; if it were undertaken of his own accord, we lower our estimate of his judgment, and lament the infirmity of our nature.

Since we have chosen to consider the present work as a *theory* rather than as a lexicon, we have confined our attention in a great measure to the *principle* on which the author has proceeded, and to the *systematical* defects of the proof into which he has entered:—we have said little of the particular words which he has attempted to explain or trace; and we find that it would greatly exceed our limits to engage in an examination of them. The reader, however, will discover in this part of the work much originality, and great variety of information. Many words, we think, are happily interpreted, and the errors of our vulgar etymologists are still more often successfully exposed.—The author's theory, we conceive, will scarcely be able to maintain itself: but his book will stand high independently of it, and can hardly fail to become an object of attention with the literary world.—We have expressed our sentiments freely, but we hope without any degree of acrimony or ill temper: for the abilities of Mr. W. we have certainly felt the greatest respect; and we should have expressed that feeling more fully, if we had not considered the length of our observations as the most unequivocal proof of its sincerity.

Jeff.y

ART. X. *The Myvyrian Archaiology of Wales*, collected out of Ancient Manuscripts. Vol. I. Poetry. Vol. II. Prose. Large 8vo. pp. 600 in each Vol. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Rees, &c. 1801.

ORIGINAL compositions, said to be the productions of the sixth, seventh, and eighth centuries of the Christian æra, in a language that is still vernacular on a part of the Western shore of this island, mixed with others more modern, constitute the volumes which are now presented to the public. In the introductory pages, it is maintained that, in those early times, the Welsh language was in as perfect a state as at this day; a state which places it, at least, on an equality with the languages which at present prevail in Europe. The claims advanced in favour of the poems, which extend to more than one hundred and fifty pages of the first volume, are certainly bold: it may be sufficient for us to state them, but we own that we labour under doubts which the reasonings of the ingenious and zealous editors have not removed. We will not, however, anticipate discussions to which the publication of them will most

most probably give rise; nor hazard our own conjectures, lest they should bias our future judgments when the subject shall come more properly before us: for it is a subject which will, no doubt, attract the attention of critics and antiquaries.

According to the editors, Aneurin, Taliesin, and Llywarch-Hen, illumine the earlier periods above stated. During the latter part of the seventh and the whole of the eighth centuries, the Welsh Muse is very silent; and from that time till about the middle of the twelfth, her voice is not at all heard. Were our worthy fellow-subjects contented to date the culture of their vernacular tongue from the period last mentioned, which appears in their account as a second æra in their literary history, it would correspond, in regard to time, with similar events among the other nations of Europe: but, whatever doubts we may entertain respecting some of the opinions stated by the editors of these volumes, we have no hesitation in saying that we deem their labours intitled to encouragement and support. They are calculated to direct the attention of the curious to a language which was spoken from the banks of the Po to the Hebrides, and which probably, at an earlier period, had as wide a range as the Teutonic. It is a language which possesses remarkable peculiarities and undoubted excellencies; and we are persuaded that letters must gain from researches into them. In a national view, also, these curious remains present strong interest; since they tend to elucidate our civil, ecclesiastical, military, and domestic history.

The following is the account which the editors give of their undertaking:

'The volumes of the Welsh Archaiology may possibly come into the possession of persons who are unacquainted with the language of the materials that are contained in them. With a view of preventing the Welsh Archaiology from being depreciated, the Editors are anxious of giving a brief and a general account of the collection, which is now added in this form to the scanty store of archaiological literature.

'There still happily remains a great number of ancient manuscripts in the Welsh tongue; some of them brought together into the valuable depositories of public-spirited gentlemen, who are liberally solicitous of preserving such treasures for posterity; and many manuscripts are fortunately saved by attentive individuals.

'These books are venerable monuments of enlightened periods of literature amongst the Britons, while scenes of barbarity were acted over Europe, and darkened the light of our island: a literature whose origin was not borrowed, but matured at home, under that extraordinary system, the Bardic Institution; concerning which, under the name of Druidism, much has been written, much misunderstood, and of which the world yet knows but very little.

'From

'From a consciousness that time was rapidly diminishing the number of our most curious manuscripts, the conductors of the present undertaking were induced to take the necessary measures for preserving the contents of those remaining, by printing a few copies to supply the demand of the collectors of British History and Antiquities. Towards accomplishing such a design, they lately increased a collection, which they had been several years accumulating for themselves, by purchasing many manuscripts, and by procuring transcripts of others; and the editors made application also to gentlemen possessed of rich treasures of this kind, for the use of their writings.

'The materials being arranged, from the above-mentioned sources, it was found that the plan naturally divided itself into two parts; one having poetry for its object; the other prose; and that it was eligible to pursue the following order in the execution of it:

'The first volume is appropriated for so much of the ancient Poetry of the Britons as fate has bequeathed to us; and comprehending all the remaining compositions, from the earliest times to the beginning of the fourteenth century. To those who are tolerably well versed in Welsh literature, this will appear a very proper point for the conclusion of the volume; as it forms a remarkable epoch in the character of our poetical compositions in particular; resulting from the loss of patronage, occasioned by the great change in our political condition.

'The second volume of Poetry includes the most select performances of the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries.—However charming all the effusions of the Cambrian Muse, during those periods, may appear to the few, who are acquainted with them, the Editors must content themselves with giving such pieces only, as seem most deserving of notice, from their intrinsic merit; or as they may tend to elucidate our history, or to display our national manners and customs: for, by publishing the whole, which would extend to many volumes, there would be great expence incurred, without adequate gratification to the public.

'These volumes will form a thesaurus of ancient British verse, through the space of about twelve hundred years; and they will display various characteristics, with respect to style and manner.

'The first volume of Prose Archaiology is dedicated to history. It will embrace about the same extensive period as the first volume of poetry; that is, from the fifth to the beginning of the fourteenth century. Therein the reader may perceive, that the Welsh have some records of their origin, and of ancient events, the preservation of which must obtain to them fair cause of exultation, in the presence of the nations of Europe.

'The succeeding volume of Prose contains monuments of various parts of learning and science: amongst other matters, maxims of social economy and morality; a splendid collection of proverbs; institutes of grammar and of poetry. These, as they become known, will shine unexpectedly and with brilliant lustre before the world.

'With respect to the nature and character of a collection of miscellaneous ancient writings, to such as do not understand the language

in which they are conveyed, no satisfactory information can be given by an introductory discourse, however elaborate it may be; therefore the Editors will not make the attempt, trusting that the intention will be adequately answered, by a reference to the table of contents prefixed to each volume, wherein any peculiar characteristics of the respective pieces are pointed out. But, however, there are some historical sketches of persons and things, appertaining to the object of this publication, which could not be well passed over; these the reader will find, under the head of a Review of British Literature, in the concluding volume.'

In favour of the antiquity of these productions, it is observed:

'No one branch of literature ever exists amongst any people by itself, singly and alone; it is always accompanied by others: thus in Wales we have in our old manuscripts, besides poetry, history, geography, such as it is, astronomy, laws, ethics, devotional tracts, agriculture, grammar, vocabularies, criticisms, lives of saints, medical tracts of various ages; and all these by very numerous authors. Such are the natural and unavoidable circumstances of literary knowledge; before we can hope to establish a forgery, in any one single branch, it is absolutely necessary that we should forge in all, or most, of the others, that every thing may have its inseparable concomitants. To say that letters had been used in any country, and they had never been applied to, or ever had for their object more than one branch of learning, is as probable a tale as if one should say that he had seen a large and fertile country, where only one species of plant grew, but that in the greatest luxuriancy. In all these various branches put together, the Welsh language affords upwards of a thousand, we will venture to say two thousand, manuscripts of very considerable antiquity.

'Where a great number of copies of any work are found, that circumstance is a sufficient proof that it has been long extant; and more particularly so, if such numerous copies are obviously of various antiquities; clearly evinced to be so, by the very various appearances of age, of colour, of decays of hand-writing, &c. appearances that art can never give; at least it has not hitherto succeeded in the attempt. Nothing but a great length of time can possibly give existence to such a number of copies, of characters and complexions so various, as we produce. This argument becomes still stronger, if those books appear to be of those ages when but few could write, and when inducements to write were also but very small: a still greater length of time is necessary, under such circumstances, to produce such a multitude of copies; and hundreds of Welsh manuscripts are of such a description.

'The copy of a negligent or unskilful transcriber gets into the hands of one who detects its errors, and in his own way corrects them; in the hands of another person such errors are corrected in a different manner; a third supplies the defect, on ideas of his own, very different sometimes from either of the others; so does a fourth, a tenth, and possibly a hundredth. Thus will copies, in a long succession of years, differ greatly from each other, and perhaps every

one of them in some things from all the others; and when time has left the original at a very remote distance, it becomes imperceptible, where no copy by the author, or of, or near his age, can with any probability be discovered. The judicious critic can only prefer that copy, which has the best readings; that has the fewest inconsistencies in sense, purity of language, manners, versification, and the like. When a time arrives, wherein we find a great multiplicity of such copies, we may be well assured that their original is very ancient; for such a multiplicity of copies, of variations in readings, of apparent but very various antiquities, evinced by the effects of time in different degrees upon them, can never be produced but by a long series of ages. These things are, as we may term them, the grey hairs and wrinkles of old age, which never deceive those who behold them. The many copies extant of the ancient Welsh bards have been thus acted upon, by time and by accident; of course they are authentic; or there must have existed a very great number of forgers somewhere, and at some time, as remote at least as the appearances of the greatly decayed manuscripts indicate, who combined thus to impose on the world; and in every age there must have been a succession of forgers, who, possessed of a secret, very similar to that of Free Masons, continued the fraud, and all to no purpose. If there are any who can possibly believe such a thing, we warmly congratulate them on the peculiar superiorities of their understandings, who can stand under mountains of absurdities and improbabilities without falling.'

We very much approve the conduct of the editors in never deviating from the MSS., and in inserting the various readings in the form of notes.

The national poetry of the Welsh is thus described:

'The second part of this volume, as is likewise observed before, contains the works of a great number of our most celebrated bards of the second period, commencing at the beginning, or nearly so, of the twelfth century, and continued into the fourteenth century. At the close of this period our versification had attained to such a degree of perfection, by regular and progressive improvements, that no language, antient or modern, ever yet attained to. Our system includes not only all the varieties of verse that has yet been produced in all known languages, and in all known ages, but also a number equally great of such constructed verse as we have neither seen nor heard of, in any country, or in any tongue; and yet these latter ones are by far the most beautiful and musical that we have. This system comprehends twenty-four classes of verse, or twenty-four elementary principles; these classes, and their subdivisions, include every species of verse that has ever yet, in any age, or amongst any people, been produced; besides, as just observed, a prodigious number of originals entirely and exclusively our own. All which had been discovered and brought into general practice about the close of this our second period. But with the whole being arranged and reduced to a regular system commences our third period, the object of the second volume of poetry, which must consist now of only a selection from a great number of bards, the whole of whose works could not be comprised in a very

great number of volumes. This period will come down to the time of queen Elizabeth; ever since which period our poetry has been lamentably on the decline, till within about forty years ago, when a considerable revival took place; and it is now slowly returning, by an advancing reformation, to its ancient purity, which will be where it should stop, a little short of the excessive refinements to which it once attained. A selection of a sufficient variety of the *best*, rather than the restoration of the *cumbersome whole*, of our *ancient metres*, is that which seems most desirable, and of attaining to this we are, seemingly, in a pretty fair way at the present conjuncture.'

We do not mean to deny that the Welsh language is susceptible of grandeur and sublimity, for we are well acquainted with specimens of this character in prose: but the complicated structure of the poetry appears to us to be unfavourable to this sort of writing, and to be more adapted to the lighter efforts of the muse in humour, wit, and point; and, as far as our information extends, the Welsh poetry is chiefly of this description. We perceive, however, that the poems here given as the most antient contain many specimens of the heroic, and are remarkable for strong expressions and bold images.

It does not strike us that the prose collection has any claims to very high antiquity. The triads exhibit many marks of a comparatively modern origin, and the genealogies of the British saints betray still more.

The editors would probably have done wisely, had they postponed the publication of their historical tracts, and committed to the press those miscellaneous compositions of which they speak, and those 'very ancient moral aphorisms, which are of a nature so very singular in their structure, turn of thought, and mode of expression, that there has not yet been known a language in the world whence they could have been in any degree derived, or wherein strength, clearness, neatness, and facility of expression, can be equally found.' We are very much disposed to think that this account is not exaggerated; because we know that the Welsh proverbs do not yield to those of any country in felicity and point.

We do not make any extracts from the compositions inserted in these volumes, because we apprehend that few of our readers are acquainted with the language in which they are written; and those few, perhaps, will be desirous of possessing the whole work.

Jo.

ART. XI. *Historical and Political Memoirs of the Reign of Lewis XVI. from his Marriage to his Death:* Founded on a variety of authentic Documents, furnished to the Author, before the Revolution, by many eminent Statesmen and Ministers; and on the secret Papers discovered, after the 10th of August 1792, in the Closets of the King at Versailles and the Tuileries. By John Lewis Soulavie, the Elder, Compiler of the Memoirs of Marshal Duke of Richelieu, and of the Memoirs of the Duke of St. Simon. Translated from the French, and accompanied with explanatory Tables, and one hundred and thirteen Portraits. 8vo. 6 Vols. 2l. 8s. Boards. Robinsons. 1802.

THERE can be no doubt that this work will attract the attention of various classes of readers. The strong bearing of its contents, on a period so awfully interesting, will cause it to be earnestly sought by the philosopher and the student of history;—the disclosure which it makes of so many domestic, political, and diplomatic intrigues, will secure it a place on the tables of public men;—its anecdotes of characters who led the ton will recommend it to *the fashionables*, and the lovers of novels and romances;—those who are pleased with the acquaintance of the imaginary great will have recourse to it, because it will render them the familiar intimates of the real personages themselves;—and, laying open the secret views and schemes of all the courts in Europe, it bids fair to be greedily seized in every country of our quarter of the globe, as well as in every region which contains men who can be interested in European politics. We would be understood, however, as confining these observations to the first three volumes; and we would add to this enumeration of their recommendatory qualities, that they at the same time exhibit a variety of scenes of profligacy, which will offend the eyes and vitiate the imaginations of all modest readers.

Designated as this production is, and professing to be founded very much on documents hitherto not made public, if the narrative flows with ease, if it recites no improbabilities, if it betrays no bias or party spirit, the critic has little to do with it, and there is but little scope for his art.

In assigning the causes of the French Revolution, M. Soulavie views it from a point more remote than most of those who have descanted on it, and considers himself as thus enabled to account for it more satisfactorily. Among the causes of this great event, he regards the following as the principal;—the existence of the Protestant body,—the discontents occasioned by the treaties of 1756 and 1758, and the continuance of the Austrian alliance,—the disgraceful close of the reign of Louis XV.,—the easy undecided character of his successor,—the countenance shewn by

by him to projects of innovation,—the recall of the Parliaments,—the employment of the philosophical ministers, Turgot, Malesherbes, and St. Germaine, who changed the whole character of the constitution civil and military, and thus favoured incredibly the disorganizing measures which were adopted at a later period,—the abolition of the order of Jesuits,—the interference of France in favour of the American insurgents,—the new opinions which this measure introduced into the kingdom,—and the financial difficulties which it occasioned. He is a zealous advocate for the antient diplomatic system of France, founded on the principles of foreign policy, which had the sanction of the great Henry and the powerful Richelieu; and he animadverts most severely on the Austrian alliance, which, in violation of that system, was formed by Bernis, extended by Choiseul, assisted by the countenance of Madame de Pompadour, and which became effectual and permanent in consequence of the influence of the late Queen over the councils of Versailles. As the introductory part of the first chapter not only manifests the views of the author on this subject, but is very important in itself, we shall lay it before our readers:

'The diplomatic system of France, preserved, like the sacred fire of the Vestals, from Henry IV. to 1756, considered by all good Frenchmen and men of sound understanding as the true source of the foreign power and credit of the nation, was annihilated and forgotten three and thirty years before the French revolution.

'To habituate the last kings of the house of Bourbon to opposite systems, the house of Austria first procured us the duke of Choiseul as minister of the foreign department. Afterwards it gave us Maria Antoinetta, who appeared to be bestowed on France solely as the guardian of the late treaties and the new system of politics. In consequence, a memorable struggle between the ancient foreign policy of France and the Austrian scheme was established in the bosom of the court of Versailles, in the ministry, and even in the heart of France, which introduced disorder into the royal family and the inmost recesses of the court, which accelerated the tragic scenes of the French revolution, and brought the partizans of the two opposite systems alternately to the scaffold; as in ancient France it had alternately raised and exiled the ministers, who had ventured to call themselves the supporters of either.

'Initiated into the secrets of the territorial policy of France by marshal Richelieu, the last party-man of note under the antient scheme of politics of the cardinal, his great uncle; employed in his cabinet for several years in the study of the manuscript memoirs of the cardinal, of marshal Richlieu, and of the duke of Aiguillon; it is a debt I owe my country, after the emigration or execution of so many Frenchmen, illustrious for their knowlege of our interests, to exhibit to the public the principles, wish, struggles, and projects of France, with respect to the two opposite systems. It is time, particularly under a

government, which seeks from every quarter the views and information that may be useful for the maintenance of our interests and power, to expose to the eyes of France and of Austria the sad consequences of their schemes, their errours, and their quarrels; and the absolute necessity for their changing the plan of their foreign connections, if they would not both incur the dangers of Rome and Carthage; since the course of their destiny has brought them to that point, at which those two republics arrived. To accomplish this object, I shall begin the history of Lewis XVI. and his consort with a sketch of this struggle.

'The general relations between France and Maria Theresa, at the accession of Lewis XVI., were those of a power, that, after having for centuries regarded the house of Austria as an irreconcileable enemy, whom we ought to humble and reduce for our own security, had concluded in its favour the two treaties of 1756 and 1758.

'From Henry IV. to the period of these treaties, France had never made a war or concluded a peace without taking from it a kingdom or a province, either for our own benefit or for the advantage of our allies. From Henry IV. to the treaty of 1756, France, firm in the plan of destruction which she had never relinquished, and which she had resolved to pursue till her rival was reduced to a level with the other leading powers, had taken from the German or the Spanish branch of the house of Austria, Roussillon, Burgundy, Alsatia, Franche-Compté, Artois, Hainault, Cambresis, the kingdoms of Spain and Naples, Sicily, Lorraine, Barrois, &c. Austria was in such a state of decline with regard to France, that Maria Theresa, recently despoiled of Silesia by the king of Prussia, who attacked her on the north of her dominions, while France assailed her on the south, resolved to change the political principles of her council with respect to us; resolved to leave nothing unattempted, nothing undone in France, to effect there a similar change.

'Hence our two treaties with Austria, which must not be confounded together, that of 1756, negotiated by the abbé Bernis, afterwards cardinal; and that of 1758, which was fabricated between the duke of Choiseul and the court of Vienna.

'Both these treaties are in the eyes of all nations the disgrace of Lewis XV., who by them tied up his own hands, and thus allowed Maria Theresa to accomplish the most revolting ravages and dismemberments in the north of Europe, to the prejudice of our allies.

'Thus, previous to these two treaties, France, with respect to the house of Austria, was in the situation of a power always active and victorious, enjoying in Europe that high respect which it bestows only on strength and success; while the two treaties reduced her to the condition of a secondary power, armed by Austria in the seven-years-war to despoil the king of Prussia, our natural ally, for the advantge of Austria, our enemy. This alliance reduced us to the situation of passive lookers-on, suffering the throats of our friends at Warsaw to be cut, at the time when the coalition of Maria Theresa, Frederic, and Catharine, annihilated Poland, and the most ancient of our friends.'

The

The practice of regarding all public measures and events as derived from profound and well digested counsels, which some late writers had so justly and successfully satirized, and which universal experience contradicts, was never carried to more ridiculous, or rather disingenuous lengths, than by the author of these memoirs. It is here gravely asserted that Frederic and Catharine corresponded with and countenanced the free-thinkers of France, with the view of bringing into discredit its antient institutions, and of favouring the subversions which have since taken place; and, as we proceed in the work, we shall find the author maintaining that every measure which proves disastrous to France, whether ecclesiastical, political, financial, or judicial, owes its adoption to Austrian intrigue, or British gold.

While every benevolent Englishman commiserated the case of the French emigrant clergy, and took pleasure in relieving their distresses, it was impossible not to recollect that they were the successors of those who solicited the repeal of the edict of Nantes; and who, to this day, have neither collectively nor individually disclaimed the principles which dictated that proceeding:—on the contrary, in the addresses from which we shall make some extracts, they avow them in all their obnoxious and horrible energy; and they continue to do so in their subsequent remonstrances, down to the last which they presented, and which did not long precede their destruction. In these several papers, they allow to the Protestants no attribute of the Christian character; they pray that the penal laws, in all their force, may be let loose against them; and they represent toleration as the most aggravated delinquency of which a Christian government can be guilty. Persecution and banishment qualified not the sacred aversion towards heretics, which was entertained by the priests of the Gallican church. The generosity of a renowned seminary, the munificence of a Protestant government, and the bounty of a Protestant nation, failed to subdue or to mitigate the bigotry of these reverend pensioners; or to extort from them, at any juncture, or on any occasion, an expression bordering on fraternity, or a sentiment that looked towards toleration. The latitudinarianism of the layman Grotius, founded in gratitude for Catholic protection, and that of a modern exalted ecclesiatic, founded in hatred of Protestant sectaries, have never been met by like complaisance, produced by similar or different causes, in any person of note and authority within the Romish pale.

To return, however, to the author:—Speaking of the time immediately preceding the revolution, he observes:

'So strong was even the antipathy of the higher clergy against all reforms, that it caused them, in their remonstrances, to act with

injustice towards the protestants. The latter, in the Christian republic, are what the Jansenists are in the Roman-catholicism. Their sombre manners, their rigid maxims, their troublesome precision in social intercourse, made them the natural enemies of the French clergy, who professed a great relaxation of morals. The established clergy could not bear to see, in the midst of their dioceses, men whose lives were a living and perpetual condemnation of their looser manners. The comparison was odious. Hence, as we shall see, the clergy, in their remonstrances, express their uneasiness at the preaching, the baptisms, and marriages, of the protestants. Did they wish that the protestants should be incessantly compelled by military force to submit to a foreign worship, in order to have the sanction of marriage, or else be obliged to live in a state of concubinage?'

In their address to Louis XV., they tell the king:

"It is in vain that the exercise of every religion but the Roman-catholic is prohibited in your kingdom. In defiance of the laws, the protestants flock together in every quarter. They hold assemblies in the dioceses of Valence, Viviette, Die, Grenoble, Castres, Cahors, Nîmes, Rodez, Montauban, Montpellièr, Luçon, Agen, Beziers, &c. In these assemblies, their ministers preach up heresy, and administer the Lord's supper; and we have to behold, with grief, altar raised against altar, and the pulpit of contagion adjoining to that of truth. .... If the law which revoked the edicts of Nantz, if your Majesty's declaration, given in 1724, had been strictly observed, we dare assert, that no calvinists would now be found in France. We should be faithless to the duties of our station, were we not to represent to your majesty these illegal practices, as forming one of the chief causes that tend to extinguish the light of faith, to give strength to incredulity, and to retard the success of our endeavours for the conversion of *the impious and the protestants*. We will not dwell, sire, on the fatal consequenees which, in France, would inevitably result from a toleration that would be cruel from its effets. Your majesty knows the national character of the people you govern .... and we who are the chiefs of the holy tribe, the guides, the pastors of this catholic people .... can we remain silent?... Your protection, sire, is due, not only to religion and to the church; it is also due to yourself. If you do not exert your power in putting a stop to the encroachments of heresy, and the progress of impiety, it will be too late to apply a remedy.... What have we not to fear from our enemies? Already do they threaten us. ... Restore, sire, restore to the laws all their energy, and to religion its splendour; and may the renewal of your declaration, made in 1724, be the result of our humble remonstrances!"

The address which they present to Louis XVI., at a later period, is expressed in the same style, and breathes the same spirit; as may be seen by consulting vol. iii. of this work.

The first volume states the measures of the Duke de Choiseul's ministry; (and, among others, that grand one, with the motives which led to it, the suppression of the Jesuits;) the

private

private character and public conduct of the Dauphin, his death, that of his consort, and the strange surmises in circulation with regard to those events; the introduction of Madame Du Barry by the faction of the D'Aiguillons, and the counterplot of the Austrian match by Choiseul; the triumph of D'Aiguillon, the obstruction which the marriage of the Dauphin, afterward Louis XVI., occasioned to his anti-Austrian schemes, and his paper war with his rival Choiseul; the miserable end of Louis XV., his character, the maxims of his reign; and the state of France, with that of religion, arts, and sciences, at that period. The revolution in Sweden is also sketched, and the causes which favoured the partition of Poland are enumerated. Several interesting state papers close the volume.

In the opening of Vol. II., the praise bestowed on the House of Bourbon will now perhaps obtain candid attention:

"There was in the blood of this house a goodness of disposition which seemed to be innate, and from which it will be seldom found to have departed." It never stained our national history with the acts of ferocity so flagrant in the house of Valois, and many other regal families in Europe. The persecutions exercised against the protestants under the reigns of Lewis XIII. and Lewis XIV. were the work of their ministers, rather than the effect of any positive orders of these two princes, to whom, in fact, the detail of these transactions was generally unknown.

'The house of Bourbon was incessant in its efforts for the advancement of civilization. Its vigilant and unremitting policy gradually changed the national character, which still remained rude and barbarous under the great Henry. It accomplished this improvement by humanizing the clergy and polishing the nobility, who then directed the affairs of government; but it chiefly proved successful, by conferring importance on the lower orders of citizens, labourers, artists, and the mercantile part of the community; by exciting emulation in the sciences and learning; by employing in civil offices the men most eminent for talents; and by extending the same salutary plan of administration through all the departments of the state.

'This diffusion of knowledge among the mass of the nation, with its gradual and insensible conversion from an uncivilized state, to that of a commercial, industrious, and elightened people, was the first measure which distinguishes the liberal policy of the house of Bourbon from the ancient system of government. This change was rendered still more effectual by the gradual abolition of the prerogatives of the nobility, which had for ages been the means of preserving the constitution in the form it originally assumed. The result of it was, a new order of citizens, created among the people; or rather, in fact, a new order of nobility, in direct opposition, from jealousy and interest, to the established aristocracy.

'In giving political importance to the mass of the nation; in founding colleges in every quarter; in multiplying scientific and literary institutions; and in opening the channels of information to the

meanest of the people, the house of Bourbon introduced a new epoch into the history of society, and promoted the aggrandizement of the multitude. It took from the nobility and clergy the exclusive possession of talents, and established an artificial nobility within the bosom of the state. The avowed contrariety of interests and views, between this order and that of the ancient nobility, had no small effect in producing the open rupture and sanguinary war of 1789.'—

'It has been justly observed, that courage in danger was one of the qualities possessed by the princes of this house. The valour of Henry IV. is proverbial. His son surmounted almost inaccessible rocks to obtain possession of the Alps, and carried his arms even over the Sevennes to chastise rebellious subjects. Lewis XIV., who loved war the most, was personally, perhaps, the least warlike of the Bourbon princes. His son, the grand dauphin, if not of any distinguished reputation at court, yet displayed undeniable bravery in conducting the sieges which his father had entrusted to his charge. Lewis XV. discovered no symptoms of fear when the balls of the enemy penetrated his tent. The only instances of courage we are acquainted with in Lewis XVI. are those which he shewed on the 20th of June, and the 21st of January, at sight of the instruments of death.

'This kind of courage was compatible, in the latter kings, with the most extravagant weakness of character. These princes were remarkable for diffidence in their personal talents. Their implicit attachment to their ministers, mistresses, or favourites, and their excessive love of pleasure, are the failings to which history will ascribe the downfall of their power.'—

'The prevailing defect in the princes of the house of Bourbon arose not from the faculty of the mind which *conceives and judges*, but from that which *wills, and either commands or executes*.

'Lewis XIII., through the whole of his reign, exercised no will of his own; he resigned it entirely to Richelieu.

'Lewis XIV., after preserving the sovereign power in his own person till 1685, abandoned it to madame Maintenon, his confessor, and his legitimated children; the latter of whom, proving victorious over the antiquated mistresses, the princes of the blood, and the Jansenists their rivals, reduced the most imperious of monarchs to so abject a state, that he has been heard to exclaim in his old age, "Ah! when I was king!"

The disquisition on the imbecility of the house of Bourbon, and on its physical causes, evinces less the wildness of theory than the address of a courtier; since it follows, from the positions there laid down, that the period at which Bonaparte assumed the government was one of those junctures, in which the incapacity of the reigning dynasty converts the sovereignty into a prize, which the man of the greatest genius and talents has a right to seize. This fact, and this doctrine, certainly reflect great credit on the ingenuity of their inventor; and, if established, they will furnish the Chief Consul with a far better

title than pedigrees which shew him to be descended from Charlemagne or Clovis. It is true that the hypothesis is not very consistent with the religious sentiments occasionally expressed by the present writer, in savouring strongly of materialism: but his orthodoxy is too pliant to be an obstacle to his favorable reception at court; and, moreover, he cannot be maintained under the *Concordat*, because, poor man! he has a wife, and not a concubine!

The reverses experienced by the late king, and his connection with an event which, in all its circumstances, is without parallel in the annals of time, and which proved fatal to him, to his house, and to the monarchy, render peculiarly interesting any communications which have not before been made public. We shall now, therefore, make copious extracts from the materials before us:

'The duke of Berry, afterward Louis XVI., had an austere deportment, was grave, reserved, and frequently blunt, without any taste for play or entertainments accompanied with noise, and so habitually addicted to truth, that he was never known to tell a lie. He employed himself chiefly in copying, and afterwards in composing, geographical charts, and in polishing iron with a file.'—

'Timidity, beneficence, and modesty, were the three first characteristics, which the duke of Berry manifested when he became dauphin of France. He repulsed flattery, he gave ear to the complaints of the unfortunate, he desired to know the particulars of their case, he took pleasure in observing the workmen who were employed at the castle or in the gardens, and would frequently assist them in raising a heavy stone or a beam, which they could not well manage. By dint of filing and hammering, he became an expert workman in the making of locks. The dauphiness, on seeing him with his hands all black, called him by no other name than "my god Vulcan." Why have they reproached him with this innocent employment as a crime? Did not Lewis XV. sometimes act the part of a cook? Did he not work as a turner, in ivory and box-wood, and with taste, in his small sequestered apartments?'—

'Lewis XVI. was severe and mistrustful towards the nobility of his court. He was not fond of the great. He discovered no taste for noisy pleasures, for balls, gaming, shows, pageantry, and still less for libertinism. He felt no attraction in royal authority, which was always burdensome to him. He was, however, much attached to the glory of his house; he dreaded the undertaking of any enterprize which might tarnish its lustre; he was penetrated with the instructions of his father against the views of the house of Austria, and the principles of the duke of Choiseul; and his life was a perpetual and secret struggle, in which he was supported by the duke of Vergennes, against the ambition of his consort. The spies whom Lewis XVI. retained in the cabinet of Vienna, constantly represented this princess as Austrian, both by character and principle, in the palace of Versailles. He lived with her, nevertheless, as a good husband; but, like

like a king of France, was always vigilant with regard to the views of the house of Austria, and attentive to elude them. Of this we shall exhibit some proofs.

'When Lewis XVI. ascended the throne, he was about nineteen years and nine months old: he had then been married four years. He had no taste for gallantry; and he avoided the company of women of seductive dispositions. The French commonly said of him, "He is, however, of the house of Bourbon, and he will shew it, as the rest have done, at the age of forty, when he becomes tired of the queen." He was diffident in the company of women, very little adapted to please them, being deficient in the graces, and loving no other than Maria Antoinetta, his consort.'—

'The distribution of his small apartments was in the following manner. A saloon, ornamented with gilding, displayed the engravings of his reign, which had been dedicated to him; the plans of the canals which he had constructed; a relievo of that of Burgundy; with plans of the cones and works of Chērbourg.

'The apartment over the preceding contained his collection of charts, his spheres, globes, and geographical elaboratory. Here were the designs both of the charts which he had begun, and of those which he had finished. He was dextrous in the art of washing them. His memory in geography was prodigious.

'Above was the apartment for turning and for joiner's work, furnished with curious instruments for these occupations. He inherited them from Lewis XV., and employed himself with Duret in keeping them clean and bright.

'In an upper story was the library of books which had been published during his reign. The library of Lewis XV., the prayer-books and manuscripts of Anne of Brittany, Francis I. the last of the Valois, Lewis XIV., Lewis XV., and the dauphin, composed the grand hereditary library of the palace. Lewis XVI. had placed separately, and in two cabinets which communicated with each other, the works of his own time. You might observe there a complete collection of the editions of Didot, in vellum, each volume of which was inclosed in a case of morocco leather. He piqued himself on seeing the art of printing carried to the highest degree of perfection, under his reign, by the brothers of that name. He had many English works, among which were the *Debates of the British Parliament*, in a number of volumes in folio * (resembling in merit our *Moniteur*, the collection of which is so valuable and rare). Near to these was a manuscript history of all the projects of invasion formed against that island, particularly the project of Broglio, and other analogous plans. One of the presses in this cabinet was full of port-folios, containing papers relative to the house of Austria, marked with this inscription, in his own hand: *Secret Papers of my Family respecting the House of Austria. Papers of my Family concerning the Houses of Stuart and Hanover.*

'In an adjoining press were deposited papers relative to Russia. The most refined malice has published against Catharine II. and

* We know of no such work in folio.

Paul

Paul I. some satirical works, which are sold in France as genuine histories. Lewis XVI. had collected, and sealed with his small seal, the scandalous anecdotes relative to Catharine II., as well as the work of Rulhieres, (of which he had a copy,) to make sure, that the secret and licentious life of that princess, who excited the attention of her contemporaries, should not be divulged by his means.

'Over the king's private library, there were a forge, two anvils, and a number of iron tools, with several common locks, all completed. There were also private locks, of which some were of copper, ornamented and gilt.'—

'The king was born with a weak and delicate constitution; but, when he reached the age of twenty-four, his temperament amended so much, that he afterwards became even robust. At court, they related of him some particular feats of strength, which he inherited from his mother, a descendant of the house of Saxony, so famous for vigour of constitution through successive generations.

'Lewis XVI. was distinguished by such a peculiarity of character, that it may, in some measure, be said, there were in him two men; a man who *knows*, and a man who *wills*. The former of these qualities was very extensive and various. The king was perfectly well acquainted with the history of his own family, and that of the first houses of France. It was he that composed the instructions for the voyage round the world, performed by M. de la Pérouse, which the minister believed to have been drawn up by a committee of the members of the Academy of Sciences.

'His memory was stored with an infinity of names both of persons and places. It was astonishing also with respect to quantities and numbers. He was one day presented with a long account, in the statement of which the minister had placed an article of expenditure, which had been inserted in the account of the preceding year. "Here is a double entry," said the king; "bring me the account of last year, and I will shew you that this article is mentioned in it."

'When the king was thoroughly acquainted with all the particulars of an affair, and discovered any violation of justice, he was severe even to a degree of brutality. A flagrant act of injustice made him overleap the ordinary bounds of his character: he would then insist upon being obeyed that moment, both to make sure of the atonement, and to prevent any similar misconduct in future.

'But in the great affairs of state, the king who *wills*, who *commands*, was not to be found in this monarch. Lewis XVI. was, upon the throne, nothing superior to those private persons whom we meet with in society, so weak in intellectual faculties, that nature has rendered them incapable of forming an opinion. In the midst of his pusillanimity, he placed his confidence entirely in a particular minister; and though, among the variety of opinions delivered in his cabinet-council, he well knew which was the best, he never once had the resolution to say, "I prefer the advice of such a one." Here lay the copious source of national misfortune.'—

'He was endowed with an understanding methodical and analytical: he divided his compositions into chapters and sections. He had extracted from the works of Nicole and Fenelon, his favourite authors,

authors, between three and four hundred short sentimental phrases, which he had arranged according to the subjects, and had composed of them a second work, in the taste and manner of Montesquieu. The title which he gave to this treatise was, *Of a temperate Monarchy*, with some chapters, intitled, *Of the Person of the Prince—Of the Authority of the different Branches of a State—Of the Character and Exercise of the Executive Power of a Monarchy*, &c. If he could have carried into execution all that he perceived of the beautiful and grand in Fenelon, Lewis XVI. would have been an accomplished monarch —France would have been a powerful monarchy.

'The king received from his ministers the speeches which they presented, to be delivered by him on great occasions; but he corrected them, frequently qualified different passages, erased, or made additions, as he judged proper, and sometimes communicated the work to his consort. In the execution of this business, it may be seen, that he sought for a proper word, and that he found it. The word employed by the minister, and erased by the king, was sometimes unsuitable, proceeding from the passion of the minister; but that which was substituted by the king was always apposite. The word, indeed, was so well adapted to express the sentiment with precision, that it would scarcely be hyperbolical to say, it was necessary to be a king to find it. He frequently wrote three or four times over, his celebrated answers to the parliaments which he exiled. But, in his familiar letters, he was negligent, and always incorrect.'—

'For the purpose of knowing and appreciating Lewis XVI. more exactly, I shall conclude with observing, that he had translated, from the English, a language very familiar to him, the defence of king Richard III., who was accused of crimes of which he was innocent.'—

'The writing and inscription 'RESURREXIT,' placed at the foot of the statue of Henry IV. on the accession of Lewis XVI. to the crown, pleased him extremely. "What a charming word that is," said he, "if it were true: Tacitus himself could not write any thing either so laconic or so beautiful."

'The memory of Henry IV. was extremely dear to the king: he was ambitious to make the reign of that great prince the model of his own. The following year the party which excited the people to insurrection, on account of the high price of corn, removing the inscription 'RESURREXIT' from the statue of Henry IV., placed it under that of Louis XV., then held in detestation. Lewis XVI., who knew of the transaction, retired into his small apartments, where he burst into tears, and continued so much indisposed the whole day, that he could not be prevailed upon either to dine, to take an airing in the garden, or to sup. It is easy to judge from this circumstance, what pain he must have suffered at the commencement of the revolution, when he was accused of having no attachment to the French nation.

'From the years of childhood the king was habitually religious: for his principles in this respect he was indepted to his father and those who were entrusted with his education; but M. Turgot instilled into him first a great aversion to priests, afterwards an impartiality

tiality which tended to indifference, concerning the ancient disputes of the church, and in the end a high degree of toleration in points of religion.

'At the commencement of the revolution, when he saw both the monarchy and his own person in danger, he returned to all those religious affections which he had formerly entertained. On being committed a prisoner to the Thuilleries, he became a kind of *illuminé*, accelerating the loss of his crown, to preserve inviolate the decisions of Pius VI. respecting the civil constitution of the clergy. It is in this sense, that the priests who are hostile to that system, regard him as the first martyr to their cause, and to the discipline of the Romish church, which Lewis XIV., in his famous propositions relative to the clergy of France, had sacrificed to his policy, and repressed throughout his dominions *.

'I have long been employed in studying the character and conduct of this prince: his papers in the castle of Versailles, those which were brought to the committee of safety by the victorious party on the 10th of August, and those found in his apartment at the castle of the Thuilleries, are all analysed in these Memoirs. I owe it to truth and to posterity, to declare, that I have not seen a single paper belonging to this prince, which does not prove his zeal for the interest or glory of the nation.'

Of the late unfortunate Queen, the author thus speaks:

'The four first years that Maria Antoinetta lived in France are the only happy years that she passed in that country. The young dauphiness had an angelic figure; the clearness of her complexion was remarkable, the colours were lively and distinct, her features regular, her shape slender; but her eyes, though beautiful, were subject to occasional fluxions. She had the Austrian under-lip. She was of a caressing disposition, cheerful, attentive to please, and well instructed by her mother how to make herself beloved by all at court, had she chosen to follow her lessons. The pulpits, the academies, the most distinguished societies, the journals, the almanacks of the Muses, all lavished upon her their applause. Flattery had as yet retained in France the forms and the tone of the interesting reign of Lewis XIV.'

According to M. Soulavie, in order to seize the reins of government, and to serve her house, Marie Antoinette sought

'To secure the attachment of her husband: she knew so well by what means to environ him, to dive into his mind, and discover the foible of his character, that she resolved, in conformity to the instructions of her mother, to exercise over him the whole united influence of her sex and personal charms. Actuated from early youth with the ambition of one day governing in his name, a caress, a *bon mot*,

'* I have, however, found in his cabinet the book of a German writer, which he ordered to be translated, and which was dedicated to him. This work was an apology for the marriage of priests. The author's name was Calixtus.'

mot, an affectionate sentiment, happily introduced, were the resources which she employed for obtaining the ascendancy over this young prince. The refusal and the concession of favours, happily timed, were the arts by which she attached him; and we have seen the king in his latter years regard her at once with sentiments of fear, obsequiousness, and affection.'

The present head of the House of Bourbon is thus described:

'Monsieur, entitled count of Provence, from his birth, called Monsieur, according to etiquette, from the accession of his elder brother to the crown, had discovered at court all the reserve of the presumptive heir of the monarchy. The reign of a brother, who had for many years had no child, had rendered this great circumspection necessary. Monsieur lived commonly very retired, employing himself in literature, and in drawing up historical memoirs of the events at court which fell under his own observation. This prince is the only historian I know of at the court of Lewis XVI. He possessed talents and a great variety of knowledge. He sent privately to different journals, chiefly to that of Paris, some anonymous fugitive productions, with the view of sounding the public on particular subjects of history or literature. Decent in his morals, attached to his spouse, he did not betray, till a late period, the friendship which, however, he was known to entertain for the countess of Balby.'—

'There appears then to be in the disposition of Monsieur a variety of sensations, and in his understanding a succession of contradictory, floating, indecisive, and incoherent political ideas, which determine his conduct, and deprive this prince of that stability of principles necessary for the head of a party, to conduct itself with dignity and success; and it is precisely to a prince of this character, that all the parties which have governed France, have refused to entrust their destiny, since the nation has begun to oppose so great firmness to the powers armed against her, and has found the necessity of retrieving herself from the state of humiliation, in which we had been kept by Austria from 1756, by England from 1763, and thirty confederated powers from 1792. The house of Bourbon has been overthrown, when France became ashamed of its treaties and alliances. The first requisite for a people sensible, high-spirited, ingenious, brave, and surrounded by Englishmen and Austrians, is to maintain its dignity and independence.'—

'In his fugitive and wandering life, we behold him fixing on a state held in small estimation in Europe, to fly to some corner still more distant, but always to some subaltern power, when disastrous fate continues to pursue him. To insult in history a prince so illustrious by his misfortunes, would be the height of cruelty and injustice. Monsieur will be cited by posterity as one in the class of those, who are celebrated for the vicissitudes they have experienced.

'In 1760, he was the presumptive heir of the first crown in Europe; and in the ninth year of the republic, his condition is such, that the power of existing upon the earth is become a favour; which he is obliged to negotiate and obtain after every new victory of our troops, or at each new treaty of the republic.'

'The

'The ambition of Monsieur was dark, deeply concealed, indecisive, and fluctuating with every successive event. He seemed little disposed to meddle with the affairs of administration; he intrigued less than the queen, to obtain employments, promote his favourites, or form a party in the state. He never interfered in the choice of ministers; he lamented in silence the misfortunes of the state, and no share of those with which the nation reproached the queen and the count d'Artois was imputed to him. He managed his finances with a spirit of order and moderation. He was inclined to economy and severity, rather than to liberality or diversions, having long entertained the design of establishing an opulent house.

'Monsieur seems to become daily less interesting to the nations governed by the princes of his house. In France he is forgotten or abandoned, or at least remembered with indifference, and variously characterised by different parties, according to the degrees of passion which our troubles have developed. This singular situation would be a presage of his destiny, if the French were not liberal in their opinions, and there did not exist wise men and friends of the republic, who, finding in Europe twenty-two princes of the house of Bourbon living in 1801, are persuaded, that it is for the interests and dignity of France to provide for the necessities of the wandering princes of this family, and not suffer that it should be indebted for its existence to powers, jealous of the internal peace and the future prosperity of our country.

'England stripped the remains of the house of Stuart, which France and the pope assisted, in its state of misery and dereliction.

'France, more delicate and more generous, will never permit, that the elder branch of the Bourbons should subsist by the beneficence of Austria or of England.'

Of Monsieur, ci-devant Count d'Artois, now resident in Great Britain, the author says:

'The count d'Artois, second brother of the king, had received from nature a character very different from that of Monsieur. She had given him a temperament inclined to pleasure, and to irregular and premature inclinations, which rendered his youth outrageous. At an early age he afforded subject for scandalous reports, which excited against him the blame of the public. All men of good morals, and who had an attachment to the house of Bourbon, were affected with deep concern, to find that nothing could reclaim this young prince from his disorderly habits.

'The count d'Artois was of a character sprightly, cheerful, satirical, daring, and petulant. His private chronicle is neither flattering, nor at all to be compared with the gallantry of the more splendid epochs of the monarchy. He appeared to be every thing which the king was not; and, in the same degree that the young king was reserved, virtuous, and modest in his conduct, the count d'Artois seemed to be audacious and profligate.

'A spectator would have said, at the first view of the character of the king and of Monsieur, that those two princes must certainly have fixed on salutary plans of policy.

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'He would have said, on the contrary, of the character of the count d'Artois, that his system of politics must be irresolute and versatile: but such was the destiny of this unfortunate house, that the two elder brothers, who manifested to the world the most wisdom and morality in their conduct, exercised a policy perpetually fluctuating; while the youngest of the brothers, immoral, volatile, and presumptuous, displayed definitively, in the last years of the monarchy, the bold inflexibility of the principles of absolute power, and the firmness of opinions which are the basis of it.'

The second volume farther narrates the reinstatement of M. de Maurepas in the ministry, and the measures adopted by him, the recall of the Parliaments, the private lives of the philosophical Ministers Turgot and Malesherbes, the maxims of their administration, and the very different principles which had guided the ministerial life of the old Courtier La Vrillière, who died about this time.

[*To be continued.*] Jc.

ART. XII. *Sermons preached to a Country Congregation:* to which are added a few Hints for Sermons; intended chiefly for the Use of the Younger Clergy. Vol. II. By William Gilpin, Prebendary of Salisbury, and Vicar of Boldre, in New Forest. 8vo. pp. 472. 7s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies.

THE remarks which we have already made concerning the former volume of these discourses * fully apply to that which is now added. The sermons are increased to fifty; and the *Hints*, which were before thirty-seven, are advanced to one hundred. In the first, much useful instruction and excellent advice are imparted; and, as it appears to us, in a manner likely to gain attention from and improve the audience for whom they are principally designed. We avoided quotations in the account already given of this work: but we shall now make an extract or two, by which the reader may form some judgment for himself. One shall be taken from the thirty-sixth discourse, which treats 'on the different modes of God's speaking to mankind.'

'Besides speaking to us in the works of creation, and in the holy Scriptures, there is still another way, in which God speaks to us, and that is by our *consciences*. Hitherto God speaks to us only by external objects: but conscience speaks from within. We turn away our eyes often from the works of creation: we throw our bibles often behind us; but conscience flies in our face, and will be heard. Heard in some degree it will be always: but we are at option whether we will attend to its remonstrances. There are profligate

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* See Month. Rev. N. S. vol. xxxii. p. 268.

people

people who harden their consciences by wickedness, till they will remonstrate no longer. Such people, in the high career of vice, will listen to nothing. To them we preach not. It is unavailing.—But when we call conscience the voice of God, we must conceive it to be an informed conscience. An uninformed conscience will only mislead. We are not however speaking of such information as is necessary in distinguishing nice cases; but of such common notices of right and wrong, as every man's conscience, in a Christian country, is able to obtain. Are you meditating some scheme of fraud, or villainy? Listen to the friendly advice of conscience. It will tell you how wickedly you are about to act.—How little you gain—and how much you lose.—Check then the crime in its first conception, and hesitate a while before you complete it with a deed. Are you contriving some scheme of unlawful pleasure? Before you complete your wicked conception with a deed, attend a moment to your conscience. It will hold up a glass in which you will see all your expected pleasure inverted; and in its room, disgrace, infamy, and disease. Thus also you may check the oath—the lie—the lewd jest—or any other wrongness. There is always time enough between the conception and the utterance to listen to conscience. A moment is sufficient.'—

Towards the close of this sermon, the preacher adds;

'The last observation I shall make is, that one way still remains—in which God will speak. At that awful time in which he calls us all into judgment, and pronounces sentence on us, he will speak in another manner than he has yet spoken. He will speak in his *justice*. In this world God speaks to us by his *power*—his *wisdom*—and his *goodness*: but not yet by his *final justice*.—While we live in this world God allows us a choice. We may listen to his voice or not, as we please: we have our option. But in the next world that option will be over: God will speak; and we *must* hear!'

One farther passage we take from the forty-fourth sermon, 'on our casting care on God.'

'Having shewn you that God *careth for us*, let us see how we are *to cast our care on him*.—Nobody can be so absurd as to suppose, that we are to give up all concern about our affairs, when we are ordered to *cast all our care on God*. We *must* take the future under *our own care*. The industry of youth must provide for the infirmities of age. The hand that laboured, cannot always labour; and the thinking mind is often robbed by years of all its powers. So that as life may subsist after the ability of providing for it is gone, God certainly leaves a proper degree of *care* to rest on ourselves. Even Adam, when placed in Paradise, was ordered *to dress it, and to keep it*. St. Paul himself, after he was an apostle, wrought at his profession, which was tent-making. Others of the apostles were fishermen, and exercised their calling during their apostleship. What is meant therefore by *casting all our care on God*, is this: after our own endeavours, we must trust the event of things to God. We must beg God's assistance in forwarding the *means*; but must not suffer our-

selves to be anxious about the *end*. Thus, for instance, if you have land to manage, do every thing you can, to work it properly, and make the best of it; beseeching God to bless your industry. But if your harvest do not answer your expectations; or if the seasons are not exactly as you could wish, or if any little adverse matter unexpectedly happen, be not anxious or distressed, but *cast all that care on God*. Or, if you find your family increase more than your means, do what you can to maintain them: be industrious and frugal; but do not distress yourself about the future: *cast that care on* God. When you have given your children a religious education and have brought them up in industry and frugality, you have done *your part;* and God will be a better father to your children if they continue to be religious, than you could have been yourself. Thus again, if any of you have sickness in your families, or meet with worldly losses, endeavour not to distress yourselves, but *cast all that care on* God. He can bring things right again by means which you do not foresee. In short, in matters of every kind, both of a public and private concern, let us not distress ourselves with looking anxiously into the *event* of things, which is invading God's part. They happen, in a thousand instances, contrary to our suppositions. Let us therefore make ourselves easy about them, and *cast the care of these things on God*. Thus the duty of *casting your care on* God amounts only to this—you must leave those things to *the care of* God, which your own care cannot provide for. So that at any rate, you see, you cannot lose by *casting your care on* God: what you gain by it is the last point to be considered.'

Perhaps we may not have chosen the most striking parts of the volume; and there are, no doubt, others superior: but we selected these because they seemed to agree best with our contracted bounds, and to afford a suitable view of the strain and fashion of the discourses. Some few of them relate to what may be termed doctrinal subjects, which are discussed in a very general way indeed, and regarded merely as what are to be received. The sermon on the Lord's supper is, in our apprehension, one of the most defective in this volume: but the work, on the whole, is so acceptable and likely to be of so beneficial a tendency, that village pulpits, and perhaps many others, will often resound its contents; and some ingenuous minds, we are persuaded, will make them their own by thoroughly considering, forming, or enlarging them according to their particular ideas, and as they judge most likely to render them useful. The numerous *Hints*, which constitute a considerable part of this publication, are well calculated to assist the student in discoursing from different passages of the Scriptures.

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ART. XIII. *Sermons on various Subjects.* By Samuel Stanhope Smith, D. D., President of the College of New-Jersey, America. 8vo. pp. 400. 7s. 6d. Boards. Mawman. 1801.

IF novelty of the source whence a work originates can prove a recommendation, without doubt it attaches to this volume, which is imported from what may even yet be called the *new world:* but it must be acknowleged to possess superior merit. Great Britain abounds with this class of publications; many of which must be considered as highly estimable, while there are numbers also of but little worth. We should have perceived, had the author not informed us, that it was his aim to gain somewhat of the manner of French authors who have been celebrated in this line.—'I have endeavoured (Dr. S. also says in the preface,) to consult the public taste, without sacrificing to it the plainness and gravity of evangelical truth. As far as I have been able, I have studied to unite the simplicity that becomes the pulpit, with a portion of that elegance which is now so loudly demanded in every kind of writing.'—Were merely a general character to be given of these discourses, it might be said that, notwithstanding objections which may be produced, they are sensible, animated, and calculated to impress and improve those who will attend. Such are the first two, 'on infidelity,' and that which follows, 'on the dangers of pleasure.' In the fourth, 'on the rich man and Lazarus,' we find it remarked concerning the parable; 'the lesson which it conveys is the more instructive, because it is that of a man who, as far as appears to us, was neither profligate, cruel, nor unjust. His supreme object seems to have been to enjoy himself. Vain perhaps and ostentatious, he lived in splendour and in luxury: but, amid these indulgences, he seems to have been forgetful of his duties to heaven, rather than impious; inattentive to the offices of charity, rather than inhuman; *incapable* of the self-government and self-denial which religion requires, rather than abandoned in his morals: yet, at last, we see him make his bed in hell.'—In the above judicious passage, *incapable* is surely not the proper word: nor can we much approve, on so grave a subject, of the antithesis which follows;—'From the flattering arms of unsuspected joys, he descends to the cruel embrace of everlasting flames.'

The sermon on Industry may be classed among the best; its latter pages consist of an address to the students of the college, very appropriate to the occasion: but we speak of what more directly regards the subject as a general concern, from which we know not that we can select one part as superior to another.—We make therefore a short extract from that which

enforces this virtue by the consideration of 'our relations to society:'

'No man liveth to himself alone. We are all members one of another, and are linked together by innumerable ties of mutual interest and dependence. The joint efforts of all are necessary to the happiness of all. Man, as an insulated individual, is capable of little improvement, and even of little enjoyment. Arts are invented and cultivated, society advances and is refined, and the public spirit is promoted only by united labours. Each is called to contribute his portion to the common stock. Every man, therefore, who is not usefully employed, may be said to steal so much from the sum of general benefit and happiness as his labours ought to have added to it. He does more. His example infects the community; and the idle become injurious, not only by their own indolence, but by their pernicious influence on the industry of others. Who has a right to enjoy the advantages of society, if he contribute nothing to maintain and increase them? Shall the wealthy claim this dishonourable privilege as if, being the spring of action in others, and the channels through which the rewards of labour flow, *they* might remain idle? No: the ties of reciprocal dependence connect all the orders of the community, and reach, like a mighty chain, from the highest to the lowest. Beside, is it not manifestly unjust that those, who enjoy the bounties of Providence in the greatest profusion, should employ them to the least worthy purposes; should render themselves the least worthy of men; should suffer their powers to stagnate, for want of necessary exercise; and become, by their example, the corruptors of society?—If God has elevated them to conspicuous stations, and put into their hands the means of doing extensive good, has he not laid them under proportionally higher obligations than other men to cultivate an intrinsic worth of character, and to co-operate with himself in promoting the happiness of mankind? Can this be effected by an indolent self-enjoyment, which takes no interest in the affairs of men? or by a luxurious dissipation, in which, though men may be active, they are worse than idle, and active only to become pernicious?—To the law of useful industry, therefore, the rich as well as the poor, the great as well as the humble, are, by their relations to society and to God, equally and indispensably subject.'

The justness of this reasoning will no doubt be allowed; and it is not destitute of animation. Several similar passages form a great part of the volume; and elsewhere we find what is more pathetic and *awakening*.—Occasionally, the author may appear declamatory, or discover too much his aim to engage the passions, or may seem to be rather systematically biassed; and here, also, as in the work which is the subject of the preceding article, we apprehend that the discourse which relates to the Lord's Supper is likely to afford the least satisfaction.—The remaining titles are,—'The penitent woman at the feet of Jesus.—The united influence of reflection and sacred reading in cultivating

tivating and purifying the morals;—The forgiveness of injuries, two sermons;—The pleasures of religion;—Secret faults;—Public vices;—Death;—The last judgment;—Happiness of good men in a future state.'

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ART. XIV. *The Maid of Lochlin;* a lyrical Drama. With Legendary Odes, and other Poems. By William Richardson, A.M. Professor of Humanity in the University of Glasgow. Small 8vo. 3s. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1801.

As Mr. Richardson is already known to the public by several ingenious productions, when we say that in the miscellany before us he has not derogated from his former reputation, we shall be sufficiently understood both by his discriminating and his partial admirers. The subject of his drama will not perhaps be deemed judiciously chosen, at least on this side of the Tweed, where the poems attributed to Ossian are no longer regarded with enthusiasm. The Professor, indeed, seems to have been aware of this disadvantage; for he observes, in his Preface, that it is not 'a consideration of any consequence on the present occasion, whether the author believes or not, in the full authenticity of all the performances ascribed to the Gäelic Bard. Nor does he think it derogatory to their acknowleged merit, or to the honor of Scotland, to suppose them chiefly the work of an ingenious Caledonian, enlightened with the literature of the present age, rather than of a Caledonian, such as Caledonians were in the second or third century.' There is a considerable difference, however, between the estimate of compositions supposed to be produced on one side by an unlettered savage (as Ossian must have been), and, on the other, by a schoolmaster in the eighteenth century, acquainted in some degree with good authors, and certainly master of the English Bible; in which he has indicated parallelisms with his Ossian, in his own notes on the Translation of the Highland Bard. Passages which would be regarded, on the first supposition, as proofs of original genius, must be considered, on the latter, as mere plagiarisms, devoid of merit.

Whether the fault consist in the nature of the story, or in Mr. Richardson's method of treating it, the 'Maid of Lochlin' is certainly deficient in point of interest. We begin to read without curiosity, and we finish without emotion. The dialogue moves on with solemnity undisturbed by passion. Of the lyric part, the following is a fair specimen,—for it is directed to be sung *with emotion:*

I.

'Matrons of Morven, wail and weep!
In vain along the rolling deep
Ye lift your longing eyes;
Your eyes, that fill with brimming tears;
For, there no white-wing'd sail appears,
Mingling with distant skies.

II.

'High over Selma's regal tower,
High, at the dreary midnight hour,
Ey'd by the trembling Seer,
Flames a tremendous falchion bare,
And, blazing with terrific glare,
Stounds him with panting fear.

III.

'Soon shall our sacrilegious foe
Be laid in rueful suff'rance low:
For with a flaming brand,
Odin will cleave his crested helm,
His boasted arrogance o'erwhelm,
Stretch'd on a foreign strand.

IV.

'Valhala, bright with burnish'd gold,
Thy gates with loud recoil unfold,
Send the destroyer down!
Odin, in roar of battle strong,
To thee shall victory belong,
Conquest, and high renown.

V.

'Red 'mid turmoiling clouds, unfurl
The banner of thy wrath, and hurl
The lightning of thine ire:
Far let thy pealing voice resound;
Our foe's audacious pride confound,
Whelm'd with avenging fire.'

In another act, we think, the author has been more happy; and the imagery is particularly appropriate, because it exhibits an instance of *Second-Sight:*

'Strangers in a foreign land,
Far from our native home,
Wand'ring on a weary strand,
Our steps in toil and sorrow roam.
When shall our longing eyes again,
Far beyond the foamy main,
Behold the cliffs of Albion rise?
Behold her shelt'ring forests wave?
And streams that verdant valleys lave?
And lakes, reflecting party-colour'd skies?

'When

'When will our hunter's airy footstep tread
With morn the mountain's heath-invested head?
And Selma's hospitable roof receive
The way-worn wand'rer at return of eve?
Then shall the festive shell go round,
And social minstrelsy resound;
With strife of bards in tuneful song,
High-bosom'd maids, and valiant chiefs among?—
How soft my fond illusion, when I greet
The wave, that rushes with auspicious roar,
And seems solicitous to lave my feet,
As if it roll'd from Morven's shore,
Bath'd perchance the polish'd sand
That glitters on our bay-indented strand!

'Visions of effulgent light
Flash upon my ravish'd sight!
'Merging from the watry deep,
Girt with many a rocky steep,
Beneath a canopy of radiant skies,
I see a lovely Isle arise!
Albion, I know thee, know thy prime,
Matur'd by ages of revolving time.
I hail thee; hail thy future change!—
The glades coeval heroes range,
The spacious plain, and valley wild,
No more by lurid fens defil'd,
Smile, with yellow harvest crown'd;
The while with many a mingling sound
Wafted thro' propitious skies,
From cities of imperial pride,
Where rivers roll their azure tide,
I hear a busy murmur rise.
And now I hear a loftier voice proclaim,
Pealing thro' the vault of heaven,
"In after times, to Albion shall be given
Dominion, and a name
Above the nations; for in virtue strong,
To her, and to her sister isle,
And those of lowlier note, that on her margin smile;
To her, shall equal rule and holy truth belong."

The smaller poems are nearly of the same standard with that which we have here quoted.—It would be unjust to conclude our brief account of this miscellany, without offering a tribute of praise to the author for the pure morality of his verses, and the unaffected simplicity which generally characterizes his style.

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MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JULY, 1802.

EDUCATION.

Art. 15. *Elements of English Grammar;* or, a new System of Grammatical Instruction. By John Dalton, Teacher of Mathematics, &c. Manchester. 8vo. 2s. 6d. bound. Richardsons.

NOTWITHSTANDING the labors of so many learned men on the subject of grammar, much has remained to be done by modern grammarians, from the want of philosophical accuracy in those who preceded them, and from their general neglect in tracing the meaning of words to their proper source and origin. Simplicity was not with them an object of sufficient importance: they made useless distinctions in grammar; they employed parts of speech which were not wanted; and they thus accumulated rule upon rule.—The celebrated author of the "Diversions of Purley," to whom the treatise before us is dedicated, has a disciple in Mr. Dalton by no means unworthy a master of so much genius and erudition. We have perused his compendious treatise with much satisfaction; and we recommend it to all who are engaged in the education of youth of either sex, as a very useful manual in the branch of science of which it treats. Man.s

Art. 16. *Conjugata Latina;* or, a Collection of the purest and most usual Latin Words, distinguished into Classes according to the Times of their Occurrence, and arranged according to their Derivations, &c. &c. By Thomas Haigh, A. M. Master of the Grammar School, Tottenham. Small 8vo. 3s. Boards. Symonds, &c.

We do not see that any advantage is likely to accrue to a learner from this collection of Latin words, marked according to their quantities. A good grammar will furnish a beginner with a sufficient knowlege of words; and the easiest and surest mode of increasing that knowlege is, not by committing a string of words to memory, but by gradual reading, and translating into Latin. An attention to the rules of prosody, applied *syllabatim* to Latin poetry, and reduced to practise by writing verses, is the only effectual method of impressing on the mind an accurate remembrance of the respective quantities of words. D.o

NOVELS.

Art. 17. *Adamina.* By a Lady. 12mo. 2 Vols. 7s. sewed. Vernor and Hood.

Where faults and beauties are blended together, the critic can find occasion to exercise his skill; and the pain, which it costs him to censure, is relieved by the satisfaction of having it afterward in his power to commend:—but, where neither faults nor beauties can be found, where an insipid blamelessness reigns throughout, where nothing interesting or nothing strikingly offensive occurs; what can he venture to say? He can say nothing. D.o

Art.

Art. 18. *She lives in Hopes;* or, *Caroline.* A Narration founded upon Facts. By Miss Hatfield, of Manchester. 12mo. 2 Vols. 9s. sewed. Parsons, &c.

A few words will explain the life which this lady lives. At the beginning of the first volume, Miss Caroline Harman falls in love with Mr. George Severs, and Mr. Severs with Miss Harman: but many casualties in life, not worth enumerating, intervene; and their happiness is deferred to the end of the second volume. A month before the time appointed for their nuptials, Mr. Severs contrives to shew his intended bride and a party of friends the improvements in the parish church. Here is a good opportunity for a wedding: a priest is at hand: the ring is produced; and Mrs. Severs attains the summit of her 'hopes.'—Need we add that farther remarks on this every-day-story are unnecessary? Do

Art. 19. *Justina;* or, the History of a Young Lady. By Harriet Ventum. 12mo. 4 Vols. 18s. sewed. Badcock.

A correspondence is here begun and continued through four volumes between Justina Trecothick and Matilda Nesbitt, with some occasional letters from others. These two virtuous young ladies, who, from early acquaintance, are much attached to each other, are destined to a variety of trials and misfortunes, till at last they are happily rewarded with the objects of their respective choice.

Matilda, left an orphan from her infancy, is adopted by her aunt, a weak woman, who is afterward persuaded to discard her by the artifices of Lady Cicely, a favorite friend. Thus banished, Matilda is kindly received by an old servant of the family; becomes known to her uncle, the Earl of Locheil; is adopted by him; and is married at last to her favorite Fitzorton.

Justina, in the mean time, from the unhappy marriage of her mother with Brymer, (a servant in the family,) is persecuted in various ways, and conveyed into Italy by his contrivance in order to effect a marriage between her and Sir Evan Morgan. Here, however, she gets rid of her suiter; Brymer dies by poison; her mother takes refuge in a convent; and her lover Lord Osmond appears, and makes Justina his bride.

Some of the incidents, though not new, will here be found to amuse: but the common-place moral and sentimental remarks will disgust by their repetition. The style and language will be often condemned,—except by those readers who can *set* with patience, and when weary *lay* down. Do

Art. 20. *Phatime et Zoroé, Conte Arabe. Par* M. Alciator, *de Marseille.* 12mo. 4 Vols. 12s. Boards. Dulau and Co. 1802.

This romance, it appears from the preface, was principally intended for the instruction and amusement of an *élève* of the author: but it is well calculated for young persons in general, and is intitled to considerable praise for the perspicuity of its style, the pleasing simplicity of its fable, the noble sentiments which it inspires, its pure morality, and its animated piety. The history of the aged hermit is interesting and affecting. The general reflections on men and manners, on the order and government of the world, on history, on the rise

rise and success of Mahomet, &c. &c. are judicious, and furnish much useful information for young people. The struggles of Zoroé and Phatime under their various trials, their captivity, and sufferings, convey a noble lesson of virtue; and the discovery of their aged sire Abdolahid, who had been captured and separated from them, in the person of Menophir pleading their cause before the Æthiopian Prince, like the discovery of Joseph at the court of Pharaoh, is full of natural pathos.—The virtues of Zoroé and Phatime are at last rewarded; and Abdolahid, their father, like some mariner wearied with the troubles of the ocean, arrives at the destined port, and peacefully enters "the haven where he would be." D.º

Art. 21. *Belmour.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 10s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1801.

Considerable talents are here displayed in the support and delineation of characters; accompanied by many just reflections, and a knowlege of the world. We must except, however, the libertine behaviour of Lord Belmour, in violating the rights of honor and hospitality by his criminal intimacy with Lady Roseberg;—a conduct which cannot easily be reconciled with the openness and generosity of his disposition. That man can have little soundness of principle or true benevolence, who is guilty of such a flagrant act of villainy in the house of his unsuspecting friend.—Nor can we commend in a virtuous wife, as Emily Courtenay is described to be, her expressions of tenderness towards her former admirer, and still giving him hopes of their future union.—We cannot deem that author's moral sentiments *quite* correct, who holds up such characters as worthy of our perfect approbation and esteem.

From the general accuracy of style in this novel, we were surprized at the expressions '*solicitatious*', and 'complacence of *feel.*' The recurrence, also, of the word 'uncommonly' is tiresome, and the use of the participles *sitten*, *gotten*, is unpleasing to the ear, though grammatically proper.

The narrative would have been better conducted, if the early life of Miss Melville had not been introduced so late, as an episode. D.º

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 22. *The Clinical Guide;* or, a Concise View of the leading Facts on the History, Nature, and Treatment, of the State and Diseases of Infancy and Childhood; &c. &c. By William Nisbet, M. D. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Johnson. 1800.

This volume constitutes the fourth part of Dr. Nisbet's Clinical Guide; of the former parts, we have already given an account; and we have little more to observe of the present, than that it seems to be a cheap and useful abstract of the best publications on this subject. Dr. N. has added a practical Pharmacopæia, which he has unluckily termed, in the general title, an *infantile* Pharmacopæia. This equivoque reminds us of a worthy gentleman who some years ago published a book on insanity, which he termed *Maniacal Observations:* but the title of neither of these works can be applied in the opprobrious sense to their contents.

A table

A table of the proportions of active ingredients in some principal formulæ next occurs, in which we observe an important error: the mercurial pills, or *pilulæ hydrargyri*, contain, we are told, (p. 210.) in each dram, (properly, drachm,) *four grains* of Mercury! We find no table of errata; yet we can impute this blunder only to the printer. It is capable, however, of misleading beginners, and ought to have been corrected.

The volume concludes with a sketch of nosology, founded on Dr. Cullen's system, but occasionally varied. Practitioners in the country will find this book an useful addition to their libraries; though it will by no means supersede the necessity of consulting other and more elaborate publications. **Fer.**

Art. 23. *Observations on Mr. Home's Treatment of Strictures in the Urethra;* with an improved Method of treating certain Cases of those Diseases. By Thomas Whately. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1801.

We meet with many sensible and important observations in this pamphlet; from which we should select several passages, if we could spare room, and if the nature of the subject were more adapted to our work. After having stated, in a forcible manner, his objections to Mr. Home's method of applying caustic to strictures, Mr. Whately proceeds to describe his own. The quantity of caustic to be inserted, in the first instance, ought never to exceed one twelfth of a grain; and from the author's experiments, it appears that this portion, applied to the inside of the mouth or lips, produces a slough equal in size to a seven-shilling-piece. – For Mr. W.'s directions respecting the renewal of the application, and other circumstances, we must refer the reader to the pamphlet itself; which will afford much useful information on the mode of treating this obstinate and distressing complaint. **Dº**

Art. 24. *A Compendium of the Anatomy of the Human Body;* Illustrated by upwards of 160 Tables, containing nearly 700 Figures, copied from the most celebrated Authors, and from Nature. By Andrew Fyfe. 4to. 3 Vols. 5l. 5s. half-bound. Printed at Edinburgh, and sold in London by Longman, &c.

This large work, which consists entirely of figures and explanations, is conducted on a plan which is well-calculated to facilitate the study of anatomy. The first volume consists of three parts; the osteology, in which the bones are minutely and accurately represented; the myology, where the successive layers of muscles are delineated, as they appear on dissection; and a description of the bursæ mucosæ, ligaments, and other parts of the joints.—Volume II. contains the viscera, and organs of the senses. In this part, we meet with several views of the brain, particularly adapted to initiate the student in the intricate structure of that organ.—Vol. III. relates to the absorbent system; in which is included a whole-length figure, as large as life, shewing the general distribution of the absorbent vessels, the blood-vessels, and the nerves.

A work of this nature does not admit of quotations. After having expressed our approbation of the plan, therefore, we have only to add

add our regret that it has not been completed with more success. A few, and but a few, of the plates are well executed; and the great majority are so coarsely managed, as to have a discreditable appearance. They have indeed greatly disappointed those expectations which we had formed from the well-known talents and ingenuity of the author. Fer.

Art. 25. *A Treatise on the Cow-Pox*; containing the History of Vaccine Inoculation, and an Account of the various Publications which have appeared on that Subject, in Great Britain, and other Parts of the World. By John Ring. Part I. 8vo. pp. 500. 8s. Boards. Carpenter, &c. 1801.

This work is an ample compilement of every important publication that has appeared on the subject of vaccine inoculation. The author is a zealous advocate for the practice: but, as the public opinion is now decided in its favour, some of his arguments and much of his declamation may appear superfluous. Mr. Aikin's smaller and more *readable* tract will supply nearly every thing useful on the subject. The language of Mr. Ring's book is, in truth, occasionally so inflated, that it is ill adapted to scientific purposes; and, though much valuable information is brought together in his volume, it rather oppresses than enlightens the reader, from a total want of arrangement and discrimination. The substance of many of these papers might have been compressed into a compilation of moderate bulk, without in any degree weakening the evidence, or diminishing the actual quantity of knowlege, which they contain.

Fortunately for the public, this great problem is now settled in favour of Dr. Jenner's discovery; the doubts which had arisen, from the use of improper matter in some cases, and which we at one time could not help expressing, are now completely removed; and the practice is only better understood, and more firmly established, in consequence of the discussion. Seldom, indeed, has a medical question of importance been so speedily determined: to this decision, the modesty and candour of Dr. Jenner have eminently contributed; and in these respects we may propose him as a model to all who may have occasion to engage in medical controversy. Dº

Art. 26. *An Essay on the Yellow Fever of Jamaica.* By David Grant, M. D. 8vo. pp. 65. 3s. Robinsons. 1801.

Nearly one half of this production is employed in a defence of the slave-trade, on which we shall not now offer any observations. At p. 27, Dr. Grant begins his account of the yellow fever; which, he informs us, was the remittent endemic fever of the island, and not contagious. His description of the symptoms agrees with that of most other writers. In the method of cure, he strongly advisees bleeding; which, he says, affords great relief from the head-ach; and after this, mercurial purgatives are recommended. Vomiting, Dr. Grant thinks, is injurious. After evacuations, he proposes a large dose of Peruvian bark.

Small as this pamphlet is, and particularly with reference to its price, the quantity of real information contained in it is in very little proportion to its bulk. It is also necessary to observe that the language

language is extremely incorrect; sometimes ungrammatical; and sometimes deformed by barbarisms. The first sentence of the dedication to the Duke of Clarence extends through a page and half, and at last concludes without the clause necessary to render it intelligible: we shall insert this curious specimen of composition, which is really a *non-descript* in literature.

'The interest which your Royal Highness has pleased to take in the support of the rights of the West-Indian Colonies, (rights derived from, and repeatedly sanctioned and confirmed by, the Legislature of the Parent State, and which are calculated to produce an increasing source of riches and strength to the Empire at large,) by your firmly opposing, when agitated, the Abolition of the African Slave-Trade; without which the present cultivation of that inestimable island, the Island of Jamaica, cannot be sustained, nor extensive tracts of waste land brought into cultivation; and your endeavours to check the maledictions of party spirit and frantic enthusiasm, cruelly and wantonly bestowed on the Colonists, respecting the treatment of their Negroes, from your own personal knowlege of the island, and the general benevolence of its inhabitants; confirmed at the same time, by referring to the slave-laws of the colony, and by the fullest force of evidence from men of dignified characters, the Governors and Admirals of that island; men disinterested, and therefore not liable to be actuated upon by either prejudice or enthusiasm, and whose situations not only afforded them time, but the most extensive and best opportunities for accurate information; and this evidence likewise still further corroborative, as taken in the most solemn manner at the Bar of your House—the highest temporal tribunal and purest fountain of justice.'

This period evidently wants an *appendix*. **Fer.**

Art. 27. *A short Account of the Climate of Madeira*; with Instructions to those who resort thither for the Recovery of their Health. By Joseph Adams, M. D. Physician in the Island of Madeira. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Rees. 1801.

This pamphlet contains information which will be very useful to patients whose complaints require a voyage to Madeira. The following general account will afford an idea of the prospect for invalids, from this change of climate:

'In all cases of tubercular or scrofulous consumption, if, as it has been expressed, the patient does not saunter away his time after he has been advised to leave England, we can with certainty promise a cure. —Where the lungs are ulcerated from other causes, it remains to be determined, whether there are powers remaining in the constitution to effect a cure if the patient is placed in the most favourable circumstances; for though we see many recover from a situation which invariably proves fatal during the winter in England, yet we have also instances in which an emaciated carcase has been surrendered to the waves during the voyage, or arrived only early enough to be decently interred. In an earlier period of the disease, there can be no situation in the world so well calculated for the restoration of diseased lungs, as the island of Madeira.'

Dr. Adams

Dr. Adams attributes this degree of success to the dryness of the atmosphere, and the equal temperature of the climate; and we are glad to find, from his account, that patients may now be accommodated at Funchall, on moderate terms.—We recommend, in course, the perusal of this little tract to all those who are interested in the fate of consumptive subjects. Fer.

Art. 28. *A Letter to Sir Walter Farquhar, Bart.* on the Subject of a particular Affection of the Bowels, very frequent and fatal in the East-Indies. 8vo. 2s. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1802.

The disease here described is an inflammation of the colon: but we have some doubt whether the appearances have been so entirely overlooked by authors, as this writer imagines. We shall quote his general account of the symptoms:

'The disease of which I speak, and which is by much the most acute and fatal I have met with in India, is an Inflammation of the Colon, attended, from the beginning, with a severe fixed pain above the pubes; with extreme difficulty of making water, and frequently an entire suppression of urine. There is, at the same time, a violent and almost unceasing evacuation from the bowels of a matter peculiar to the disease, and which I cannot describe more correctly, than by observing that it exactly resembles water in which raw flesh had been washed or macerated. There is always a very high fever, with unquenchable thirst and perpetual watchfulness. The pulse is extremely hard, frequent, and strong, resembling that which takes place in the highest degree of Pleurisy or the most acute Rheumatism; and there is a burning heat in the skin, which leaves a sensation on the finger, as if it had touched a piece of heated metal.'

The fixed pain, and the strangury, are mentioned by Lommius * as characteristic of inflammation of the Colon.

Purgatives are deemed injurious in this complaint, by the present author; and he seems to place his chief dependance for a cure, on opium judiciously administered.

Mr. Duncan (for this is the name subscribed to the letter) seems to believe that the Hepatitis, to which Europeans are so peculiarly liable in the East, is not often a primary complaint, but that the irritation originates in the alimentary canal: that 'it is in consequence of loss of tone, irregularity, and disorder in the bowels, that the functions of the liver are first disturbed, and that this organ becomes subject to inflammation and obstruction.' If this be generally the case, Mr. D.'s view of the causes of Hepatitis adds strength to Mr. Scott's recommendation of the nitrous acid, in that complaint. D.º

Art. 29. *Observations on the Cow Pock.* By John Coakley Lettsom, M. & L.L.D. 8vo. 3s. Mawman. 1801.

The question respecting vaccine inoculation being now so generally decided, we have no occasion for entering into the reasoning and facts contained in this pamphlet. It manifests the most lively interest in the subject, but it is written with a pomp of language

* Observat. Medicinal. p. 169.

which

which is not well adapted to modern times. Dr. L. talks, for example, of the *periphery of his associates*, meaning the circle of his acquaintance; and of the *lactarious fountains*, meaning the dugs of the cow. This is "too picked, too peregrinate *," for us.—Some curious facts, however, are here recorded; and among them is the following:

'Although the Cow-pock had long since been found by incidental experience a security against the small-pox, it had never been applied to any beneficial purpose, till the genius of Jenner discriminated its powers, and introduced it into practice, as a permanent security against the variolous infection. This preventive quality of the vaccine fluid was certainly known even to scientific professional men many years ago; but, strange as it may now appear, no one, till Jenner promulgated his discovery, had ever improved that knowledge, by applying it to the process of inoculation. About twenty years, ago, when Dr. Archer was the physician of the hospital for inoculation, Catharine Wilkins, now Titchenor, from Cricklade, in Wiltshire, who had had the Cow-pock in consequence of milking cows, came to her brother in London, (where she is now resident,) who, being desirous of ascertaining whether this circumstance could be depended upon as preventive of the small-pox, sent her to the hospital for inoculation, when she received the variolous matter from Dr. Archer; against which, however, she was proof, and the small-pox of course could not be communicated; but no advantage was derived from this fact.

'Archer was a prudent, cautious, and rather timid practitioner; and the hospital for inoculation owes much of its importance to his persevering attention to its interests; but he neither possessed the spirit of penetrating inquiry of Woodville; nor the genius of discovery of that man, who was destined to form a new æra in medical practice.'

After this specimen of the Doctor's good sense, we shall present our readers with a sample of his eloquence:

'When Herschell fixed the site of the Georgium Sidus in the great volume of the heavens, you raised the theme of ardent praise to this unrivalled astronomer; but what is the Georgium Sidus, in competition with the Jennerian discovery! Has it conveyed to one human being a single ray of advantage? Contemplate with impartiality the latter, whose beneficent rays are destined to dissipate the gloomy atmosphere of pestilential mortality; whose fatal victims, I am bold to suggest, amount to 210,000 annually in Europe alone! Does this reflection admit of a coldness of description? Dip your pens in ætherial and indelible ink!—Impress your observations in characters legible to the most distant regions of the globe!'

Not relying implicitly on this amazing power of language, Dr. Lettsom has called in the aid of the engraver, and has exhibited the sacred cow, in a vignette on his title-page; with attributes better suited to the superstition of a Hindoo, than to the notions of a

* Shakspeare.

rational

rational Christian *. We cannot join in transferring the gratitude due to Providence, for this great discovery, to the poor quadruped, which has become the unconscious medium of such an essential benefit.

The extraordinary facts, now authenticated respecting the cow-pock, open a wide and curious field of inquiry into the origin and relations of the class of exanthemata.

Fer.

Art. 30. *A Treatise on Opthalmy* †, and those Diseases which are induced by Inflammations of the Eyes. With New Methods of Cure. By Edward Moore Noble, Surgeon. Part the Second. 8vo. 4s. Robinsons. 1801.

After having treated of the theory of this disease according to the Brunonian system, and of the cure of active inflammation, Mr. Noble proceeds to consider the irritable chronic states of the disease; or, in his own words, 'the Opthalmy proceeding from a deficiency of stimulus.' This part of the treatise contains many practical remarks which deserve attention, and which would have been still more valuable, if they had been translated into common language.—By the new methods of cure mentioned in the title-page, we suppose that readers must understand the more recent methods recommended by writers, because several of the plans enjoined by Mr. Noble are taken from the publications of Mr. Ware and other authors. As he has fairly quoted his authorities, on those heads, we mention this with no other view than to prevent the disappointment of professional men, who might open the pamphlet with hopes of finding discoveries in the modes of treatment.

The topical applications, on which Mr. Noble chiefly depends at the commencement of this species of ophthalmia, are

'A, caloric, applied by means of water; and

'B, pure alcohol, diluted with water, either with or without a small quantity of camphor.'

That is, in plain English, warm water, or camphorated spirit of wine. With regard to the strength of the latter application, the author observes:

'In general, I find two drachms of the rectified spirit of wine, or a drachm and a half of the camphorated spirit, answer very well; but I must observe, it is of consequence towards success, to have the mixture of a proper strength; for if the pain it causes is very severe, it will stimulate the eye too much, and the patient will not allow of its application long enough to bring on that peculiar action of the vessels that is wished for, when the inflammation will be increased, instead of abated, as will shortly appear to be the case, if tinctura opii is applied at the commencement of a violent Opthalmy. If, on the other hand, it should be too weak, its effects will be slight and

* Dr. L. has also given portraits of Drs. Jenner, Pearson, Woodville, and other physicians who have distinguished themselves by their attention to this subject.

† The author perseveres in thus mis-spelling the word, of which we took notice in our account of Part I.; see Rev. vol. xxxvi. p. 208.

transitory, little ease will be experienced after using it, and the practitioner will be disappointed in the expected cessation of pain, and the alleviation of the symptoms.'

The external application of laudanum is recommended, on theoretical principles which may be contested: but its use is sanctioned by experience, whether the theory be right or wrong. Mr. Noble uses a particular formula, which we shall quote exactly as he has printed it:

' Tinctura opii mitior.
℞ Extracti opii, 'drachmas quinque.
Spiriti vini rectificati, uncias quinque.
Aquæ distillatæ, uncias decem.
Digere per dies sex, & cola.'

This is not the only instance of bad Latin which we have remarked in the present performance.

The application of tincture of tobacco is strongly recommended, especially to the temple and forehead, for the removal of the violent pain with which those parts are affected during the progress of Ophthalmia.

We certainly think that Mr. Noble's publication, with all its disadvantages, merits the regard of the profession: but it would have found more readers and followers, if it had appeared as a practical treatise, divested of that technical language which, however seducing it may appear to Mr. Noble, will probably become obsolete and unintelligible in the course of a few years. It has never, indeed, been adopted by authors whose attention has been directed to useful facts rather than to speculations.—The expressions of original genius are always simple; those of ingenious theorists are commonly difficult to be comprehended; and there subsists, perhaps, the same difference between the style of Hippocrates and that of Brown or Darwin, as between that of Homer and Lycophron. D°

POETRY, &c.

Art. 31. *The Pleasures of Retirement*, in three Cantos. With other Poems. By John Jefferys. Small 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1800.

These poems, which we have accidentally overlooked, appear to be the production of a very young writer, who has acquired a "knack at rhiming," without much poetical genius. The mechanical structure of the lines is rather pleasing, but the thoughts are trite, and the expressions common. The following passage is a fair specimen of the principal poem:

' Grant me, propitious heav'n! a humble cot,
Deep in the country, a sequester'd spot;
Far from the city, and the envious croud
Of praise penurious, but of malice loud:
Let poplars, elms, and oaks, the forest's pride,
Defend my hamlet on the Northern side;
And rising lofty from the covered plain,
Afford a refuge to the feather'd train:

There let the partridge and the pheasant shun
The dread explosion of the sportsman's gun.
All-gracious God! let not that murderer rove
With steps unhallow'd through my sacred grove;
Let thorns grow round, and let the timorous hare
From hounds pursuing find a shelter there.
In murmuring streamlets let a fountain flow
Along the meadows to the woods below;
Around my wall the pliant woodbine glide,
And form an arbour at my cottage side.
Unbar the fasten'd gates, ope thou my door
Wide to the stranger and receive the poor;
Crown then my hopes, and make thy happy youth
Sacred to Virtue and her sister Truth!
Teach me to know thy will, oh! teach me this
By blessing others to increase my bliss.
What, though the dome be wanting at whose gate
In servile pomp the pamper'd menials wait!
What, though the pillar'd roof or marble pile
Does not auspicious on my dwelling smile!
Can massy plate, or rich embroider'd vest
Alter my transports or preserve me blest?'

Among the smaller pieces is a Latin Ode, *in Otia Ruris*, which we cannot praise; and there are also some translations from Horace, which possess neither the ease nor the elegance of the original.

Should this author design to persist in his poetical career, we earnestly recommended to him *Retirement*, for the next seven years, from the bar of the public.

Fer.

Art. 32. *Mary Stewart; Queen of Scots*, an Historical Drama. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Longman and Rees. 1801.

This play is submitted to the public without any introductory address; and we are left to a few notes to learn the author's reasons for departing from historical truth, in so well-known a story, and for the appearance of other excentricities in the performance. It is not improbable that the temporary credit, obtained in this country by the German tragedians, had seduced the anonymous writer to copy their model; for we observe in this piece many of the faults which we have had occasion to reprehend in the Teutonic play-wrights: but it seems that it was composed without a knowlege of Schiller's play on the same subject. Let the intention of the author, however, be what it may, the tragedy will not attain either of the legitimate ends of poetry, *aut prodesse, aut delectare*. The language, without betraying any particular fault, is too little elevated for this species of composition; as will appear from the subsequent passage, which is one of the most favourable specimens that we can select:

'As for their discipline, it seem'd but rude;
But for their hearts, I am concern'd to say,
In number many, they are yet but one,
Glowing with zeal in Mary Stewart's cause:
And well they may;

For

For well she knows, and practises each art
To win men's love. She wore a crown of bays
Begemm'd with primroses; and in the front
A thistle-sprig appear'd, as if to say,
This emblem, dear to Scotland, still I prize
The brightest jewel of my diadem:
In her right hand, unglov'd, a sword she bore,
While with her left she rein'd her pawing steed,
As pass'd the several clans. She knew the name
Of every chief; to each one's homage bow'd,
Then kissed her hilt: But when the Douglasses
Advanc'd, she stoop'd so low, her lovely locks,
Disorder'd with the wind, were seen to join
Her charger's flowing mane. When all had pass'd
They form'd a ring around this fair Bellona;
Then she harangued them with a modest boldness:
She spoke of English arts, and English gold;
And vow'd she would not see her realm reduc'd
To be a province of a foreign queen.'

The author's talents seem, indeed, better adapted to description than to pathetic verse; witness the hermit's account of his retreat:

'I'll thank your Highness with my heart's last throb;
But know, I would not leave this lonely place:
Those I hold dear; one I held dear is laid
Within that roofless chapel wall: Each weed
That grows about her grave I know: They spring
With *gaudless* flowers, year after year the same:
The wind that sighs among yon aged trees
Sounds like an old friend's voice: Even Cluden's stream,
Whether 'neath summer suns it gently flows,
With such a whispering murmur, that the bee
Upon the farther bank is heard to hum;
Or whether, in its ice-fraught course, it roar
So loud amid the wintry thunder storm,
That though the flash is seen, the peal's unheard,—
All, all its sounds are grateful to mine ear:
I would not part from it, or from these woods,
The very birds of which are tame, and know me:
I should even miss the echo's wonted voice,
That gives responses to my lonely hymn,
And bears it, with a music not its own,
To heaven. But hark, the woodland matins rise.'

We cannot avoid noticing, as one blemish of this drama, the introduction of the vulgar Scotch dialect in several of the scenes. This disagreeable mixture is not rendered palatable by any tincture of wit; and the author should have known that the language was very different at that period which he has undertaken to represent.—In this, as in too many other instances, we have the misfortune of writing an epitaph, instead of rearing the character of a work. *Nascentes moriuntur* is all that can be said of such productions. Fer.

Art. 33. *The Meteors.* Small 8vo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Black, &c. 1800.

Whatever notice these literary meteors *of the last century* might attract, at the time of their first (*periodical*) appearance, and during their evanescent existence, it cannot be expected that any *record* of them will receive much attention, after the lapse of two years which have passed before they came into our hands. Time, however, we imagine, has already in this interval done fair justice to the merit of these little poems, epigrams, &c. by kindly throwing over them the friendly veil of concealment.

Art. 34. *John the Baptist,* a Poem. By Joseph Cottle. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

The author of this poem has already introduced himself to the notice of the public, by various poetical compositions.—The small production before us betrays many imperfections, although it contains at the same time many good lines. The purity of the sentiment, and the piety which shines throughout it, blended with a degree of severity which well becomes the character of the Baptist who here speaks, deserve particular commendation. Towards the close of the poem, we were not so well pleased. We think that it would have ended more happily at the 530th line; after which the Muse descends. The *Limæ labor* might be applied in many parts with much advantage; and particularly to correct a confusion of *tenses*, which frequently occurs. **Man.**

Art. 35. *Youth,* a Poem. By J. Bidlake, A. B., &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray and Co. 1802.

This poem contains many just reflections, and much good advice to youth: but we cannot say that the composition reaches the elegance and simplicity of Gray's ode "on a distant prospect of Eton College," which the author seems to have had in view. Our readers, however, have so long been acquainted with the poetical powers of Mr. Bidlake, that we need not either enlarge our remarks, or illustrate them by quotations. **Do.**

Art. 36. *The Female Volunteer,* or the Dawning of Peace, a Drama, in Three Acts. By Philonauticus. 8vo. 3s. Smeaton.

Philonauticus apologizes for the defects of his composition, on the ground that it was written under circumstances of anxiety and embarrassment, and finished in the space of a single week. He has endeavoured, he says, to arrest the attention of the public by other literary productions: but, when he settled with his bookseller, he always found the balance against him. What could be done? He has now tried his dramatic talents; and we sincerely wish that he had a prospect of better success: but indeed we cannot praise this drama. The occasional songs interspersed have a better claim to commendation; and we therefore solicit the patronage of the public for a collection of poems, which the author says it is his intention to publish. **Do.**

EAST INDIA AFFAIRS.

Art. 37. *A Letter to the Proprietors of East-India Stock,* respecting the present Situation of the Company's Affairs, both abroad and at

at home; in *Answer* to the Statements given in the latter Part of the Third Report of the Special Committee of the Court of Directors, dated 25th of March, 1802. 8vo. pp. 113. 3s. Hatchard.

Those who have perused the third report mentioned above will, in our apprehension, here find matter worthy of their regard: *we*, however, not having seen the papers in question cannot presume to enter into particulars, especially on a subject of such great importance, not only to the Proprietors of East-India Stock, but to the public at large.—We may, nevertheless, transcribe the concluding paragraph of Mr. Dundas's Speech, to which it relates:

'The summary Abstract of what I have now brought to the notice of the Committee is as follows:—An examination of the Accounts upon the table, both abroad and at home;—The Influence and Power of the Company in the year 1784, and at the present time;—The acquisition of Territory and state of Alliances;—Of foreign Relations;—The improvement of the internal administration of their own Dominions;—Of the Commerce in India, at China, and at home;—An explanation of the increase of the charges, and the prospect of again obtaining a surplus revenue;—The supplying investments by means of loans;—The improvement of the Company's Affairs, under every event, during the periods of comparison;—And finally, the Plan in contemplation on the return of peace.

'In retiring from my official connection with the affairs of India, the Committee will do me the justice to believe, that I can never be indifferent as to the success of the measures I have pointed out. I entertain on the subject the most sanguine expectations. Under other circumstances, I might, at the present moment, have felt deep regret, in the apprehension that new Systems might have been introduced, and new Theories applied to the administration of our Indian Empire. I make no doubt, many things will be found to require improvement and correction, and none will rejoice more sincerely than I shall in the fame and glory of those who may be the instruments of those improvements. But I am perfectly satisfied, no radical change in the System I have pursued will be made, but on the fullest conviction of its propriety; and under that impression I shall continue to contemplate, with heartfelt joy, every progressive improvement in our Indian Concerns; reposing the most entire confidence in the talents and integrity of those whom His Majesty has appointed to succeed to me in this important charge.'

ANTIQUITIES.

Art. 38. *Grecian Antiquities;* or an Account of the public and private Life of the Greeks: relating to their Government, Laws, Magistracy, Judicial Proceedings, Naval and Military Affairs, Religion, Oracles, Festivals, Games, Exercises, Marriages, Funerals, Domestic Employments, Entertainments, Food, Dress, Music, Painting, public Buildings, Harbours, Baths, &c. Chiefly designed to explain Words in the Greek Classics, according to the Rites and Customs to which they refer. To which is added, a Chronology of remarkable Events in the Grecian History, from

the Foundation of the Kingdom of Argos under Inachus, to the Death of Alexander. By the Rev. Thomas Harwood, late of University College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 509. 9s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1801.

An useful compendium, principally compiled from the elaborate works of Abp. Potter and Lambert Bos, disencumbered from the historical and mythological digressions and long quotations from the classics, with which the former abounds, and yet not on so contracted a plan as to leave the inquisitive scholar unsatisfied in his researches, as must be often the case in consulting that of Professor Bos. Whatever may assist the learner, and facilitate the acquisition of knowlege, cannot (as Mr. Harwood justly observes) be unacceptable to the friends of literature; and we hope and believe that his book will contribute to promote that useful purpose. Without the knowlege of what is most instructive and interesting in the customs and manners of the antient Greeks, the study of the Greek classics would be dull and unprofitable; and Mr. H. has therefore added the Greek words to the particular custom to which they relate: in order that, by connecting words with things, the student may at once complete his knowlege of the country by the language, and of the language by the country.

Tooke

POLITICS.

Art. 39. *Remarks on the late Definitive Treaty of Peace,* signed at Amiens, March 25, 1802. By William Belsham. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons.

This pamphlet will be read, in general, with much satisfaction and pleasure. Its object, as stated by its sensible and ingenious author, is—'to demonstrate that the terms of the late treaty are just, honourable, and equitable; and that the ministers who concluded it deserve the praise and gratitude, and not the disapprobation and censure, of their fellow-citizens.' In order to establish this proposition, Mr. B. takes a view of the state of Europe when the Preliminaries were signed, discusses in detail the articles of the Treaty, and replies to the chief objections which have been urged against it.

If considerable praise be here bestowed on the present ministers, it is not without attaching an equal portion of blame to the conduct of their predecessors; who are accused of being averse to peace when in power, and of urging futile objections against it after their removal. Mr. Windham's ideas are treated as Quixotic; and, as long as Lord Grenville remained in office, Mr. B. endeavours to shew that no rational hope could have been entertained of the termination of the war, since he had failed in seven different negotiations. Mr. B. is also of opinion that to restore Mr. Pitt to his former preeminence of power would be to trust Phaëton a second time to guide the chariot of the Sun.

Having discussed the articles of the Treaty, and replied to objections, Mr. B. thus sums up:

'Upon the whole, it is evident to demonstration, that the nation is under the highest obligation to those ministers who, entering into a negotiation for peace in the true spirit of conciliation, have with such

wisdom, firmness, and moderation, brought to a felicitous conclusion a treaty attended with such numerous and complicated difficulties. But there are those who seem reluctant to allow the present ministers their just merit in making the peace, because they rank amongst the original friends and advocates of the war. They are invidiously identified with the late ministry, and reproached with gross and palpable inconsistency. It may not be improper to say a few words on this head. That the war was in its origin unjust, because unnecessary, and because all the usual means of averting it were not put in practice, has ever been the fixed opinion of the writer of these remarks. On this head the reasonings of that illustrious and prophetic statesman Mr. Fox always appeared to him absolutely irrefragable. "Justum bellum," says the Roman historian, "quibus necessarium, et pia arma quibus nulla nisi in armis relinquitur spes." LIV. l. ii.—But it is impossible to deny that great numbers of persons, the most respectable for talents and virtues, were of a very different and opposite opinion: and it would be the height both of arrogance and injustice to attach the idea of political culpability to their characters for entertaining this opinion. The constitution wisely and properly annexes responsibility to the immediate ministers and advisers of the crown, and to them alone. In them great and continued errors can scarcely be separated from actual delinquency; and, though it may be admitted as a valid excuse for others, it is no adequate apology for *them*, if the nation has essentially suffered from their ignorance or presumption, to say THEY have been MISTAKEN.'

Perhaps there is too much severity in this concluding remark. To *mere* errors of judgment, in any situation, we would extend pardon. However, without attempting to ascertain the degree of blame which belongs to the late ministers, it is a consolation to think that the war in which we were continued by their crimes or their errors is ended; and that we retire from it in full strength, again to fight our own battles on our own element, if occasion should arise to render it necessary.

Art. 40. *A Letter (interesting to every Lottery Department, and particularly to the Lottery Adventurers) addressed to the Right Hon. Henry Addington;* containing a critical Examination of the Plan, Scheme, &c. of the New Lottery System. By R. Houlton, A. M. 8vo. 2s. Stewart.

In a moral view, lotteries are to be severely reprobated: but in the department of finance they are found so convenient to a minister, that we cannot flatter ourselves with the hope of their annihilation; and the application of palliatives to the disease is all that the nation must expect. In stating the lottery scheme, the Minister generally assures the House that he has taken great pains to prevent its mischievous operation: but, when the principle itself is radically vicious, it is impossible to obviate all the evil consequences. One plan, however, may still be more objectionable than another; and Mr. Houlton gives his reasons for thinking that the New Lottery system, proposed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, is, if possible, worse than the old one, in consequence of misinformation received on the subject. The *project* is very defective as a plan for preventing low in-

surance; while the *scheme* militates, in an uncommon degree, against the interest of the adventurers, and will tend, if adopted, ultimately to crush the lottery system itself.

In the first part of the pamphlet, the author makes an unsuccessful attempt at wit, which has unnecessarily increased its bulk: but he has suggested some very useful hints for the consideration of the Minister, and of the Lottery Adventurers, who are proved to have embarked in a very losing speculation. Tickets in the present lottery come to market, he remarks, at more than ninety per cent. above their real value. He moreover shews that, by shortening the time of drawing, the poor are not precluded from the practice of insurance. Moy.

Art. 41. *A brief Address to the Electors of Great Britain on the approaching General Election.* By an Elector. 8vo. 9d. Longman and Rees.

With a most laudable design, this Elector addresses his fellow-electors: but, as he admits that these are "shabby times," can he expect much success from exhortations to public virtue? He may have gratified himself by bearing his testimony against innovation and corruption, and by sighing over the decay of Liberty; and so far it is well: but we question whether his pamphlet made any impression at the late General Election. Electors may be exhorted to 'determine to have a Parliament composed of the Friends of the People, and to resist the base inducements of intoxication and party colours:' but the state of the representation must be amended, and the morals of the people improved, before such good advice can produce corresponding effect. Do

Art. 42. *The Duties of Electors:* with Answers to Reviewers. By the Author of the "Impolicy of returning Bankers to Parliament." 8vo. 6d. Jordan.

Reprobating the practice of 'lending paper on a profit, and using it as money,' and considering 'the country as poisoned by the quackery of paper banks,' the author of this pamphlet calls *aloud* (in CAPITAL LETTERS) on the Electors of Great Britain 'to give no man his vote who will not pledge himself to propose, or see proposed in the First Session after the Election, and to prosecute to effect, An Inquiry into the Nature, Extent, and Tendency of Accommodation Paper in the United Kingdoms.'

We have not heard whether this pamphlet has produced any effect on the Electors, and we must wait till the first session of the New Parliament, to see whether it will operate on the Elected. The writer is aware of the fatal consequences which may attend *Accommodation Paper;* and we are persuaded that he sounds the alarm from patriotic motives: but well-intentioned efforts are not always crowned with success. Do

Art. 43. *Substance of the Speech of the Hon. C. J. Fox* on moving a new Writ for the Borough of Tavistock, March 16, 1802. *Printed by Authority.* 8vo. 6d. Debrett.

In noticing a former edition of this singular and pathetic speech, we expressed a wish that it might be published *by authority.* The

title of the pamphlet before us announces the gratification of this desire: but it is not accompanied by any preface or other introductory matter, stating its origin, or announcing that any errors existed in the former impression which are now corrected.

G. 2.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 44. *Letters on the present State of the Jewish Poor, in the Metropolis;* with Propositions for ameliorating their Condition, by improving the Morals of the Youth of both Sexes, by rendering their Labour useful and productive in a greater Degree to themselves and to the Nation. 8vo. pp. 36. Richardson. 1802.

We have here a plan for an important, and, in our immediate apprehension, a benevolent design; the grand object of which is thus summarily expressed by the author in his seventeenth page;—where he states 'that it is highly necessary to endeavour bettering the condition of the Jewish Poor, by relieving the helpless, instructing the children, and diffusing among them the knowlege of handicraft trades, without any infringement of their established religious customs.'

For the means by which it is proposed that this most desirable work may be accomplished, we refer to the pamphlet at large; only adding, for the farther information of our readers, that a bill is to be brought into Parliament, to sanction and enforce this undertaking.

This publication appears to have taken its rise from the author's * correspondence with Mr. Colquhoun, whose cordial approbation of the plan is given to the public, at length, in his own beneficent and truly patriotic words.

Mr. V. foresees objections to his humane and laudable *propositions*, from various quarters, but he does not seem to consider them as insurmountable. As to the *expediency* and probable consequences of his proposed methods of ameliorating the wretched condition of the Jewish poor, we must confess that *our* situation in the world, as *men of letters*, has not fully qualified us for *decidedly* judging in a case so very peculiar, and of so much exigency.

Art. 45. *A Letter to Abraham Goldsmid, Esq.*, containing Strictures on Mr. Joshua Vanoven's Letters on the present State of the *Jewish Poor.* Pointing out the Impracticability of ameliorating their Condition, through the Medium of Taxation and Coercion. With a plan for erecting a Jewish College, or Seminary, &c. By Philo Judæis. 8vo. 1s. Black and Co.

Strongly as we were led, by the first impressions of benevolence, to express our approbation of Mr. Vanoven's Plan, &c. (as noticed in the preceding article,) we now find ourselves not less interested in the *Strictures* before us, on the Letters of a public spirited *Hebrew:* for such we deem that writer to be. This anonymous opposer of Mr. V.'s well-meant design offers a very different plan: but on which of the two, if on either, the choice of the public will fall, we pretend not to predict.

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* Mr. Joshua Vanoven, of Bury-street, St. Mary Axe.

On

On the whole, however, we are very glad to see so great an object, so benignant a purpose, brought forwards for public discussion:—May happiness be the result—"to the Jew first, and also to the Gentile."

Art. 46. *Answer to Mr. Joshua Vanoven's Letters on the present State of the Jewish Poor in London;* in which some of his hasty Mistakes are rectified; with a Word to R. Colquhoun, Esq. on the Subject of the Jews as treated in his *Police of the Metropolis*, with an Introductory Letter, setting in a conspicuous View some of the Jewish By-laws as observed at present, and an exact Copy of the Bill now before Parliament for bettering the State of the indigent Jews. By L. Alexander. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Printed for and by the Author *, and sold also by Jordan, Fleet-street.

Mr. Alexander introduces himself to our acquaintance as an Israelite by nation, a printer by profession, and also as at once an author and a bookseller; all which circumstances are manifested by the evidence of the publication now before us. We perceive, by the same means of information, that he is a man of good sense, and of abilities sufficient for a plain investigation of the subject which has fallen under his notice. He has started a variety of cogent objections to the plan and proposals so earnestly maintained by Mr. Vanoven; and some of his animadversions seem to carry with them so much weight, that we cannot but recommend them to the serious attention of those benevolent persons who are inclined to promote this public-spirited and surely well intended undertaking, but who may not have had the same means of information relative to the circumstances and situation of the Jewish inhabitants (of all ranks) in this country.—A copy of the Bill, depending in Parliament, is here *appended*, as well as in the pamphlet noticed in the preceding article.

Art. 47. *A Treatise on Brewing;* wherein is exhibited the whole Process of brewing the various Sorts of Malt Liquors; with practical Examples upon each Species: together with the Manner of using the *Thermometer* and *Saccharometer*, rendered easy to any Capacity, in brewing London Porter, Brown Stout, Reading Beer, Amber, Hock, London Ale, Windsor Ale, Table Beer, &c. By Alexander Morice, Common Brewer. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Symonds. 1802.

The business of a '*common brewer*,' or brewer *for the public*, is a subject with which we have no very intimate acquaintance: but, as far as we can venture to speak, on the present occasion, the author of this book appears to be really master of his business. It gives particular directions, practical and scientific, for managing every kind of brewery of ale and beer, known in this country.—In doing this, we are rather surprized to find him, under every head, or division of his treatise, stating the proportion of the drugs, bitters, sweets, &c. as constantly and in course used with the Malt and Hops; while the principal London brewers (we believe) disclaim the use of such

* White-Chapel Road.

ingre-

ingredients *. What shall we, what can we say to this?—*We* who understand no part of the subject, except the concluding operation, when the liquor is set before us in the sparkling glass!—Mystery apart, the author, it must be acknowleged, writes like an honest as well as an intelligent brewer; and we have no doubt that his book will prove useful to those readers for whom it is calculated.

An Index and Glossary accompany the work: to which, also, is prefixed a brief History of the London Brewery, from the earliest accounts of this truly important manufactory in our country.

Art. 48. *Canterbury Tales.* Vol. IV. By Harriet Lee. 8vo. pp. 500. 8s. Boards. Robinsons. 1801.

Under this title, a string of romances and novels may be spun out *ad libitum*. We know not when this lady and her sister propose to stop, nor to what extent their imagination will supply them with materials. Of the general merit of the Canterbury Tales, we have spoken on former occasions; and nothing more remains for us at present, than to notice the contents of the volume before us. It includes only two narratives; the German's Tale, and the Scotsman's Tale. The former, which occupies almost the whole volume, is constructed on ideas which the modern German writers have so abundantly supplied. Though not destitute of merit, it exhibits little else than a gloomy, horrid, and unnatural picture; and in some parts the story drags on with as much heaviness as a German stage waggon in a bad road. It would have produced more effect, had it been less dilated.—The Scotsman's Tale is more pleasant and congenial to common feelings; and it uniformly sustains the interest which it excites. The history of two lovers, from the first moment of mutual attachment to their union in the vulgar bands of wedlock, is rapidly sketched, with some of those difficulties and perturbations which often intervene between hope and fruition. We are not, however, kept long in suspense; and, before the curtain drops, the Scotsman and his Claudina are rendered affluent and happy.

Miss Lee's reflections are in general judicious and amiable. Of the latter kind, is the remark which is made on the return of Claudina's brother, who was a French *emigré*, to his native country: 'How sincerely did we all lament that the tide of human affairs should separate beings united by every principle of affection or intellect!—Surely it is for the liberal-minded and humane of every nation to encounter the destructive influence of general prejudice, by extending and strengthening, in their private habits, those social feelings which bid man acknowledge his fellow-creature in every quarter of the globe.'

To the style of this work we cannot uniformly extend our approbation. Provincialisms and colloquialisms appear; such as 'motion-

* Mr. Morice, however, speaks of most of them as *wholesome*: but the *Coculus Indicus* berry he describes very differently: acknowleging it to be a hurtful narcotic, by no means advisable to be used, independently of the penalty, &c.

ing

ing his father from him,' and 'spiritless and exhausted *of* an evening;' but the defect, against which we most wish Miss Lee in future to guard, is the termination of her periods with adverbs and prepositions. Mo

Art. 49. *A faithful Journal of the late Expedition to Egypt.* Including a circumstantial Account of the Voyage, dispostion of the Fleet, Arrangements on Landing, Battle of Aboukir, Surrender of Alexandria, Death of Abercrombie, and other interesting Particulars. By a Private on board the Dictator. 12mo. 1s. Lee.

This journal has the appearance of really originating from the source whence it is said to be derived; and it contains such particulars as might be supposed to fall within the knowlege and observation of a person so situated.

Mistakes in the orthography of the names of places, &c. in course occur; and we do not observe any circumstance of moment related with which the public was not before acquainted. The account, however, may afford some amusement, and gratify some curiosity. Articles of capitulation, copies of general orders, returns of losses in action, &c. are included. G.2.

Art. 50. *The Life of Toussaint Louverture,* Chief of the French Rebels in St. Domingo. To which are added, Interesting Notes respecting several Persons who have acted distinguished Parts in St. Domingo. By M. Dubroca. Translated from the French. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Symonds. 1802.

Toussaint is not one of the successful few who have "waded through slaughter to a throne:" but he appears, in the short course which his ambition was destined to run, to have spilt blood enough to satisfy an ordinary hero. According to the account before us, he is a monster grown old in the perpetration of crimes; the assassin of his benefactors; hypocritical, perjured, and cruel. It must be remembered, however, that this description was composed to justify the strong measures taken by the French Government against him; and therefore, though the atrocities of which this Negro Chief has been guilty would be sufficiently horrible, were they related without the least exaggeration, the pages of M. Dubroca must be read with caution.

Toussaint was born in 1743, in the North department of Saint Domingo, on the estate of the Count de Noe; (a gentleman who, since the Revolution, has resided for some time at Hampton Court;) and at his birth he was in the condition of a slave. Giving early indications of genius, and teaching himself to read and write, he was noticed by the overseer of the estate, who took him into his own personal service, and first made him his coachman. Hence growing in favour, he was advanced to a superintendance over a number of slaves; and from one step to another he arrived at the supreme command of his revolted brethren. As his race of ambition is probably now run *, he will cease to call forth that interest which he formerly

* The newspapers have announced the total subjugation of this revolt, and the final transportation of Toussaint to France.

excited;

excited; and as to his political and military conduct, it has been so often detailed in the public prints, that it is unnecessary for us to record it.

The work is ornamented by a portrait of this Black Chief. We know not whether it was ever like him, but it could not have been recently taken, because it is too young for a man fifty-nine years old. Mo-y.

THANKSGIVING SERMONS.

Art. 51. Preached at the Parish Church of St. George, Hanover Square, the 1st of June, 1802, being the Day appointed for a General Thanksgiving. By Henry Reginald, Lord Bishop of Exeter, Rector of that Parish. 4to. 1s. Robson.

A text applicable to thanksgiving in general (Ps. l. 14.) here calls forth some general observations on the duty of publicly expressing our gratitude to God for his mercies; whence the R. R. preacher proceeds to make some remarks on the origin and object of the late war; and to offer his congratulations that, by the blessing of God on the promptness and vigor of our counsels, and on the exertions of our Navy and Army, it is now happily brought to a conclusion. Do

Art. 52. Preached at the Parish Church of the Holy Trinity, Minories. Published at the Request of the Parishioners By Thomas Thirlwall, M. A. Curate. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.

After having enumerated the dangers which threatened us from disaffection, mutiny, scarcity, alarms of invasion, and irreligious principles, Mr. T. exhorts us to rejoice that, under the protecting shield of Divine Providence, 'the ark of the Constitution remains untouched; the throne and the altar are preserved sacred and inviolate; the charter of our civil and religious liberties is uninfringed; our lives, property, and independance, are guarded and protected; and our empire consolidated, strengthened, and defended.' These mercies we are required to employ to a good use. Text, Ezek. xxxvii. 3. Do

Art. 53. Preached in the Parish Church of High Wycombe, Bucks. Published by Request. By the Rev. W. B. Williams, B. A. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

From Zeph. iii. 14, 15. we are here invited to consider the judgments under which we have been labouring, our deliverance from them, and our duty in consequence of this mercy. The preacher congratulates his country on the Peace, since the Almighty has "abated the *pride*, assuaged the malice, and confounded the *devices* of our [late] enemies." Yet he recommends to us no extravagant hilarity on the occasion, but rather to *rejoice with trembling*. Do

Art. 54. Delivered at Worship-street: to which is subjoined the Congratulatory Address of the Protestant Dissenters on the return of Peace, presented to the King, on Thursday May 27; together with his Majesty's Answer. By John Evans, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Symonds.

Reprobating

Reprobating war, and lamenting its horrors, Mr. Evans hails with enthusiasm the return of peace; and the drift of his sermon is to shew that, whether we consider the good man in his individual, social, religious, or public capacity, he will in all be induced to adopt the language of the text (Ps. cxx. 7.) "*I am for Peace.*" A Hymn on the *Reign of Christ* is added: but the spirit of poetry did not reign in the mind of the author.—In the Answer to the Address of the Dissenting Ministers, his Majesty assures them of "the continuance of his favour and protection."

Mo-y.

OTHER SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 55. *Pity upon the Poor.*—Preached June 30, 1801, in St. Mary's Church, Brecon, at the Annual Meeting of the Subscribers to the Clerical Fund, in that Archdeaconry. By the Archdeacon. 4to. 1s. Hurst.

We have perused with peculiar satisfaction this well-written discourse; the able writer of which signs his name Edward Edwards, at the bottom of his prefixed Address 'to Mrs. *Chalie.*' This address follows another paper of the same kind, which runs thus: 'To the Lady at Hamburgh, who, desiring to be unknown, has, at this trying period, most benevolently ordered the sum of *one thousand pounds* to be distributed in this kingdom, among Clergymen with large families and small incomes, through the House of Ransom, Morland, and Co. Pall Mall.'—The discourse does much credit to the writer; and it is to be hoped that it could not fail of promoting the good design with which it was composed.

Art. 56. *Revelation indispensable to Morality.*—Preached in the Chapel of Trinity College, Dublin, 21st March 1802. By the Honorable and Right Rev. William Knox, Lord Bishop of Killaloe. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dublin, Sold by Cadell jun. and Davies, in London.

The advocates for the sufficiency of Natural Religion are unable to point to any period or state of society, in which this sufficiency has been manifest. In the history of Philosophy, we see only *opinionum commenta*,—hypothesis succeeding hypothesis, without establishing any stable and satisfactory basis of moral conduct. The will of God seemed necessary to remove doubt; and the communication of this will is a circumstance which might be reasonably expected in the administration of his moral Providence. Dr. John Leland, in his work on the advantages and necessity of Revelation, by adducing all that was accomplished by the learned of antient times, has proved *that the world by wisdom knew not God*; and hence he demonstrated the expediency of a divine interference. The Bishop of Killaloe has not only well compressed Dr. Leland's argument, but has made a most important addition to it. From the tendency of civil society to generate vice, he maintains the indispensable necessity of religion to the promotion of good morals:

'We collect (says he) from the history of many ages this important truth, that there is but one foundation of virtue, one secure and stedfast morality. We learn that neither private virtue, nor national

tional liberty, can subsist where the corruption consequent upon civilization is not arrested in its progress by religion; and that without her, in spite of all declamation to the contrary, vice and profligacy must ever be the crime and the disease, and a despot the scourge and the cure.'

There is something striking in this observation; and from this short passage the reader may appreciate the superior merit of the whole discourse. **Mo-y.**

Art. 57. Preached in the Chapel of the London Hospital, April 8, 1802. By Richard Watson, Lord Bishop of Landaff. 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell jun. and Davies.

The present is a popular discourse, in which Dr. Watson endeavours to frustrate those who would *pervert the Gospel of Christ,* (text Gal. i. 7.) not by employing against them abstruse and learned reasoning, but arguments levelled to the apprehension of the ordinary classes of mankind. While we approve this method, we may be permitted to question the propriety of placing the credibility of our Saviour's resurrection on a par with that of the gun-powder plot, because suspicion attaches to all political plots, from which this is far from being exempt; whereas the resurrection of Christ, which cannot be attributed to any political agency, and which could not be applied to any political purpose, cannot be doubted on this ground. The witnesses of that event, though the objects of persecution, did not desist from glorying in the gospel; and assured, by a splendid fact, of the existence of a future state, they chearfully sacrificed their lives in the service of their heavenly master.

After having pointed to the immorality of the lives of men, and to religious inattention, as the prevailing causes of infidelity, the Bishop of Landaff pays his country a compliment which we are confident it justly merits, viz. that 'Christianity is in no part of the world better interpreted, more generally understood, or believed on more rational grounds, than in Great Britain';—and that, though 'we are a rich and luxurious people, we are also a liberal and humane people.' If our crimes cannot be diminished, at least may they be "kept from despair by being long cherished by these virtues." **Dº**

Art. 58. Occasioned by the Death of John, Earl of Clare, Lord Chancellor of Ireland, and Vice-Chancellor of the University. Delivered in the Chapel of Trinity College, Dublin, on Sunday Feb. 7, 1802. By the Rev. William Magee, D. D. Senior Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin. 8vo. Pamphlet. Dublin; sold by Cadell jun. and Davies, London.

Reflections on mortality are not expected to possess novelty; it is sufficient if they be just, and stimulative to virtuous exertion. Such is the character and such is the tendency of those thoughts which form the basis of the discourse before us; and from which Dr. M., after having shed the tear of respect on the ashes of Dr. Murray, and Dr. Young, Bishop of Clonfert (of whom the College has not long been deprived,) proceeds to lament the death and to embalm the memory of the late Earl of Clare. This nobleman is here represented,

sented, in his political character, as having displayed a noble indifference to popular opinion, and an unshaken firmness in the cause of loyalty; in his judicial capacity, such integrity, dispatch, and attention to the respectability of the bar, that the nation may have long to wait for a successor of similar endowments; in private life, as pious towards God, generous as a landlord, punctual in his dealings, and steady in his friendships; and, as a member of the University, unwearied in his attachment to its interests, and to those of the Established Religion.

Such, says Dr. M. were some of his merits; and if there were faults in his character, which cast a shade on his shining qualities, this is but the lot of man.—Thus funeral sermons are only *ex parte* evidence; and the faithful historian will not highly estimate their unqualified encomiums. Mo-y.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are obliged to a Correspondent who humorously signs himself *Ignotus*, for his remarks on the commencement of Gray's Ode on the Poetical Character, in reference to the observations of Dr. Berdmore and ourselves; (see Rev. for May, p. 24, &c.) and though we do not entirely agree with him, we are far from undervaluing his opinion. The line in Virgil, to which he refers, certainly bears a close resemblance to that of Gray: but the passage in Horace, pointed out by Dr. Berdmore, contains the same idea.—In his sentiments of Gray's general merits, *Ignotus* seems to have adopted Dr. Johnson's criticisms: but on subjects of this nature diversity of opinions will always subsist. We shall only observe that the metaphor of a stream, as applied to poetry, is not merely sanctioned by the authority of Horace, but that Homer has characterized the eloquence of Nestor in similar terms:

Τῷ καὶ ἀπὸ γλώσσης μέλιτος γλυκίων ῥέεν αὐδή.

We would also beg leave to remind our Correspondent that, by the "Stream of Music," Gray did not understand the melody only, but the *Sense* of Poetry.—The proposed alterations do not appear to us to be improvements of Gray. Fer.

Another letter has been sent to us by Dr. Hutton of Woolwich: but it is inconsistent with our plan, and incompatible with our limits, to continue this dispute.

We know nothing of the circumstance concerning which A. A. inquires.

B: B: B: is received, and will not be overlooked.

Mr. Cooke's letter has reached us, but we cannot interfere in the affair which is the subject of it.

☞ In the last Review, P. 143. l. 5. from bott. after '*our*,' insert *power*. P. 201. l. 3. from bott. for '*these*,' read *the*. P. 210. l. 7. dele '*of*' after '*most*.'

Errata, P. 257, 258, 259, 272, 308, 323.